

Journal of Multidisciplinary Research

Vol. 7, No. 2

Summer 2015

Journal of Multidisciplinary Research

ISSN 1947-2900 (print) • ISSN 1947-2919 (online)

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Journal Web Address <http://www.jmrpublication.org>

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Mission Statement

The mission of the [Journal of Multidisciplinary Research](#) is to promote excellence in leadership practice by providing a venue for academics, students, and practitioners to publish current and significant empirical and conceptual research in the arts; humanities; applied, natural, and social sciences; and other areas that tests, extends, or builds leadership theory.

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Vol. 7, No. 2

Summer 2015

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ISSN 1947-2900 (print) • ISSN 1947-2919 (online)
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Editorial

A warm welcome to the Volume 7, Number 2 edition of the *Journal of Multidisciplinary Research (JMR)*.

This issue of the JMR brings our readers multidisciplinary research from as far as Australia and as close as the U.S.A. In this issue, we feature a study from Springfield College about the effects of acute aerobic exercise versus resistance exercise on mood state. Another collaborative study from La Trobe University and Federation University provides a review of education research journals and challenges in the development of a suitable mapping tool called the Journal Article Research Analysis (JARA) schedule. A another collaborative study from the United States Coast Guard Academy, Boston University, Lesley University, Walden University, and Post University provides perspective on trust and the Leader-Follower relationship. We also bring you a timely discussion about the current state of fraternity and sorority hazing law as well as a proposed solution.

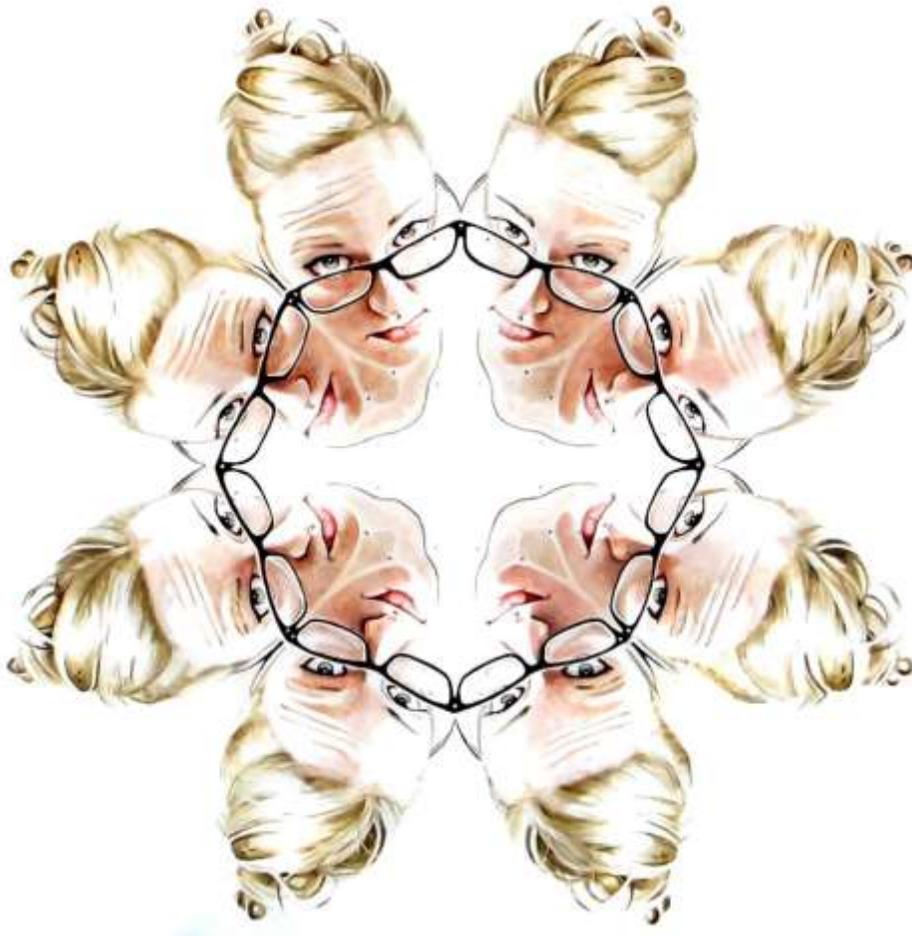
In the Student Corner, we feature research about the impact of media on U.S. Hispanics' professional job searches. In our Life Forward section, we have an interesting interview with Danny Alfonso, City Manager of the City of Miami. We also review the books *God, guns, grits, and gravy* by Mike Huckabee, and *A guide to publishing for academics: Inside the publish or perish phenomenon* by Jay Liebowitz. In this issue, our "spotlight artists" are Michael Williams, Willie Báez, Heloisa Botelho, and Deming King Harriman.

As we continue to innovate and evolve as a research journal, we are ready to start the New Year with much vigor and great plans ahead.

Onward,

Hagai Gringarten, Ph.D.

Editor-in-Chief



Seriously
2015

Watercolor on canvas by Michael Williams

This piece stems from both my previous work with portraiture and the western philosophy of the mandala, in which the mandala is seen as a graphical representation of one's self. The work takes on this traditional radial structure that, through repetition, draws attention around the form emphasizing the expression and persona of the subject. In this process new archetypes of expression are created.

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Journal of Multidisciplinary Research, Vol. 7, No. 2, Summer 2015, 5-16.
ISSN 1947-2900 (print) • ISSN 1947-2919 (online)
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The Effects of Acute Aerobic Exercise versus Resistance Exercise on Mood State

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Abstract

This study investigated the effects of acute aerobic exercise versus resistance exercise on mood state. Male and female participants ($N = 20$; mean age = 22.25 ± 3.37) completed a resistance exercise bout consisting of three sets of 12 repetitions for five exercises and an aerobic exercise bout consisting of walking on the treadmill. The exercise bouts were matched for intensity and duration. Participants completed the Profile of Mood States-Short Form (POMS-SF) before and after both exercise bouts, and scores were compared using repeated measures ANOVAs. A significant difference in mean mood state scores from the beginning to the end of exercise was found in the tension, anger, fatigue, depression, and confusion subscales of the POMS-SF. Effect sizes were greater with resistance exercise in the tension, depression, vigor, and confusion subscales of the POMS-SF. A significant difference in mean mood state scores between aerobic and resistance exercise was found in the vigor and confusion subscales of the POMS-SF. In conclusion, exercise appears to be effective in improving mood and either resistance or aerobic exercise can be performed for the benefit of mood enhancement.

Keywords: Exercise, depression, POMS, mood

Introduction

There is a wealth of evidence to suggest that exercise and physical activity improve mood state (e.g., Bartholomew, Morrison, & Ciccolo, 2005; Guskowska & Sionek, 2009; McDonald & Hodgdon, 1991; Osei-Tutu & Campagna, 2005), yet there is no consensus on the exact mechanism by which exercise improves mood. Physical activity may serve as a period of relief from daily stressors (Estivill, 1995) and may increase the amount of specific neurotransmitters that affect mood, self-concept, and nervous system responses (Kirkcaldy & Shepherd, 1990). There is also limited understanding of the exact frequency, intensity, duration, and mode of exercise that may lead to improved mood state. In reference to mode of exercise, most studies have examined the effect of aerobic exercise on mood state and have found improved mood state following exercise (e.g., Bartholomew et al., 2005; Hansen, Stevens, & Coast, 2001; Osei-Tutu & Campagna, 2005).

A limited number of studies have examined the effect of resistance exercise and found improvements in mood state (Bartholomew, 1999; Engels, Drouin, Zhu, & Kazmierski, 1998; Maraika et al., 2005; Rocheleau, Webster, Bryan, & Frazier, 2004). Bartholomew (1999) found mood dropped below baseline immediately after resistance exercise; however, 30 minute post-exercise mood improved similarly to improvements found after aerobic exercise. Engels et al. (1998) and Maraika et al. (2005) found improvements in mood after a combination of resistance training and aerobic exercise similar to those found after aerobic exercise. In contrast, Rudolph and Jin Gu (1996) suggested that activities with a low aerobic component may not require enough energy to result in improved mood. Rocheleau et al. (2004) reported improved mood after resistance exercise; workout duration and level of exertion significantly moderated this relationship (i.e., an increase in either corresponded to greater improved mood). However, Netz and Lidor (2003) suggested high intensity exercise did not result in improved mood and instead low-intensity rhythmical exercise that is mindful based may improve mood the most.

Mood states are relatively long-term emotional states that are often (but not exclusively) either positive or negative (Mitchell & Phillips, 2007). In contrast to emotions, which involve cognitive appraisals in response to specific events (Frejda & Scherer, 2009), moods are diffuse and global (i.e., less likely a particular stimulus or event triggers it); they also are less intense than emotions (Morris, 1992). Moods are an integral component of our everyday lives and have wide-ranging impacts upon psychological and emotional well-being (Mitchell & Phillips 2007). A better understanding of the relationship between exercise and mood may lead to a better understanding and treatment of mood disorders such as depression (Steptoe & Cox, 1988). Depression affects one in every 10 adults in the United States (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC], 2012) and more than 350 million people worldwide (World Health Organization [WHO], 2012). Costs related to major depression are substantial and encompass both direct health care costs as well as indirect costs such as loss of productivity, absenteeism, and early retirement (WHO, 2012). Depression also can negatively affect and worsen diseases and conditions such as arthritis, asthma, cardiovascular disease, cancer, diabetes, and obesity (CDC, 2012).

There is a need for greater understanding as to how exercise affects mood as well as an increased understanding of what mode (aerobic or resistance) of exercise is best. Learning more about how exercise affects mood may lead to an increased understanding of how exercise will affect depression. Exercise may then become a more common type of treatment and alternative

to medications. The purpose of the current study was to compare the effects of an acute bout of resistance exercise and an acute bout aerobic exercise on mood state.

Method

Participants

The population of the current study was exercise science students at a small New England college. The researchers used a convenience sampling technique to recruit 20 (9 male and 11 female; Mean age = 22.25, SD = 3.37 years) volunteer participants. All participants were regular exercisers per current U.S. Physical Activity Guidelines, and reported no medical contraindications for exercise. Researchers excluded potential participants who did not meet these criteria from the study.

Instrumentation

The researchers used the Profile of Mood States-Short Form to assess mood (POMS-SF; Shacham, 1983). Shacham (1983) designed the POMS-SF with six subscales to measure six specific mood states; tension-anxiety, depression-dejection, anger-hostility, vigor-activity, fatigue-inertia, and confusion-bewilderment. The tension-anxiety and vigor-activity subscale scores range from 0 to 24. The depression-dejection subscale score has a range from 0 to 32. The anger-hostility subscale score has a range from 0 to 28. The vigor-activity subscale has six items, scores range from 0 to 24. Finally, the fatigue-inertia and confusion-bewilderment subscale scores range from 0 to 20. Total mood disturbance (range 0 – 124) is a function of these six scale scores.

Shacham (1983) formed the POMS-SF by eliminating items from the original Profile of Mood States (POMS; McNair, Lorr, & Droppleman, 1971) with the least internal consistency and face validity. Curran, Andrykowski, and Studts (1995) found the POMS-SF to be highly correlated ($r = .95$) with the original POMS, which McNair, Lorr, and Droppleman (1971) found to be valid and reliable in measuring mood.

The researchers selected Borg's Category Ratio (CR-10) Rating of Perceived Exertion (RPE) Scale (Borg, 1998) to measure perceived exertion. The CR10 RPE scale ranges from 0-10, and participants select the number that best corresponds to the perceived intensity of the exercise bout. The scale has verbal anchors at "0" *nothing at all*, "0.5" *very, very light*, "1" *very light*, "2" *fairly light*, "3" *moderate*, "4" *somewhat hard*, "5" *hard*, "7" *very hard*, and "10" *very, very hard (maximal)*. The CR10 RPE scale is based upon heart rate and blood lactate in the equation $[(HR\% + Bl\%)/2]$ (Borg, Hassmen, & Lagerstroem, 1987). Borg, Hassmen, and Lagerstroem (1987) found the RPE scale to correlate with blood lactate and heart rate increases with workload during arm ergometry and bicycle ergometry.

Researchers used a Noramco HS Elite motorized treadmill (Noramco Fitness and Performance, Conroe, Texas) for aerobic exercise testing. Participants performed resistance exercise using free weights and Olympic bars (Cybex International, Medway, Massachusetts). Researchers used Polar E600 HR monitor (Polar USA, Lake Success, New York) to monitor heart rate (HR).

Procedures

Following approval of the study from the Institutional Review Board, the researchers verbally recruited participants from undergraduate and graduate exercise science classes at a small New England college. Individuals who wished to participate in the study signed an informed consent form and completed a medical history form. Researchers allowed individuals who did not have conflicting health or medical problems to participate in the study.

Pretest

Participants performed a 3 repetition max (RM) test which researchers then used to determine the load during the resistance training protocol. Exercises for the 3 RM test were the back squat and bench press. Researchers estimated 1 RM using individuals' 3 RM with the formula [1 RM = (weight lifted x # of reps x 0.033) + weight lifted] (Epley, 2004). The load the participants exercised with during the experimental protocol was 28% of the 1 RM, which is equal to 61% relative intensity. Researchers scheduled the resistance training experimental exercise bout 48 hours following the pretest. Researchers instructed participants to refrain from exercise for 24 hours prior to the experimental exercise bout and to follow their normal diet.

Experimental Testing

Participants began each session with a warm-up consisting of foam rolling and dynamic stretching, after which they completed the POMS-SF. Each session ended with a cool-down consisting of foam rolling and static stretching and re-administration of the POMS-SF. The researchers collected overall session RPE at the end of each exercise bout.

The resistance training exercise bout consisted of five exercises for the major muscle groups of the body: bench press, back squat, Romanian dead lift, bent over barbell row and plank. Participants performed three sets of 12 repetitions for each resistance exercise. Researchers recorded the total time of the resistance training bout from the start of the first exercise to the end of the last exercise, excluding warm-up and cool-down.

The aerobic exercise bout consisted of brisk walking at an incline on a treadmill at an intensity of 61% maximal HR. The researchers calculated maximal HR for each participant according to the Karvonen Formula (ACSM, 2013). To eliminate any effect of time, researchers matched the duration of the aerobic bout to the exact duration of the resistance training bout for each individual participant. To reach the desired exercise intensity, the researcher gradually increased the grade and pace of the treadmill, until the participants attained 61% of maximal heart rate (± 3 bpm). Researchers did not increase the treadmill speed to the point that participants needed to jog or run; once participants attained a brisk walking speed, researchers increased and maintained the intensity of the treadmill by changing the grade.

Statistical Analysis

Researchers used six repeated measures ANOVAs with two repeated measures factors for statistical analysis. The repeated factors were condition (i.e., aerobic and resistance training) and time (pre and post exercise session). The dependent variables were the subscale scores on the

POMS-SF (Shacham, 1983). Researchers further analyzed significant ANOVA results using paired samples t-tests. As a manipulation check, researchers also compared the RPE scores from each experimental session using a paired samples t-test, with the expectation that there would be no difference between conditions. Researchers used IBM SPSS version 21 for statistical analysis, and set the level of significance at $p < .05$. Researchers calculated effect sizes using Cohen's d statistic (Cohen, 1988).

Results

The purpose of this study was to compare changes in mood state following a single bout of resistance exercise to changes in mood state following a single bout of aerobic exercise, which the researchers matched for both intensity and duration. Participants completed the POMS-SF before and after each exercise bout, and the researchers analyzed the subscale scores of the POMS-SF using six repeated measures ANOVAs. Mean duration of both the aerobic and resistance exercise bout was 20.85 min ($SD = 2.21$). Mean RPE for the resistance exercise bout was 2.90 ($SD = 0.72$) and mean RPE for the aerobic exercise bout was 3.30 ($SD = 0.80$). As the researchers expected, there was no significant difference in RPE between conditions $t(19) = 0.13, p = .59$. Table 1 presents descriptive statistics for the POMS-SF, and Table 2 presents summary ANOVA results. In the interests of parsimony, the researchers discuss only significant results below.

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics and Effect Sizes for POMS-SF (N = 20)

| Source | Pre-test | | Post-test | | Cohen's d |
|------------|----------|------|-----------|------|-------------|
| | Mean | SD | Mean | SD | |
| Tension | | | | | |
| Resistance | 4.50 | 3.60 | 1.75 | 1.71 | 1.10 |
| Aerobic | 3.60 | 3.17 | 1.35 | 1.56 | 0.78 |
| Anger | | | | | |
| Resistance | 1.80 | 3.71 | 0.60 | 1.46 | 0.49 |
| Aerobic | 1.25 | 1.89 | 0.25 | 0.55 | 0.59 |
| Fatigue | | | | | |
| Resistance | 4.70 | 2.36 | 3.75 | 2.63 | 0.54 |
| Aerobic | 5.40 | 3.51 | 3.95 | 3.03 | 0.53 |
| Depression | | | | | |
| Resistance | 1.30 | 2.00 | 0.50 | 1.23 | 0.73 |
| Aerobic | 1.00 | 2.13 | 0.60 | 1.76 | 0.49 |
| Vigor | | | | | |
| Resistance | 11.05 | 4.72 | 11.75 | 3.62 | -0.19 |
| Aerobic | 8.30 | 3.21 | 9.90 | 3.16 | -0.50 |
| Confusion | | | | | |
| Resistance | 2.80 | 2.04 | 1.00 | 1.56 | 1.25 |
| Aerobic | 1.30 | 1.34 | 0.70 | 1.17 | 0.57 |

Table 2
 Results of 2 x 2 Repeated Measures Analyses of Variance Comparing POMS-SF Subscale Scores

| Source | F | df | p | η^2 |
|------------------|-------|-------|------|----------|
| Tension | | | | |
| Condition | 1.55 | 1, 19 | 0.30 | 0.06 |
| Time | 24.11 | 1, 19 | 0.00 | 0.56 |
| Condition x Time | 0.60 | 1, 19 | 0.45 | 0.03 |
| Anger | | | | |
| Condition | 1.03 | 1, 19 | 0.32 | 0.05 |
| Time | 7.75 | 1, 19 | 0.01 | 0.29 |
| Condition x Time | 0.15 | 1, 19 | 0.70 | 0.01 |
| Fatigue | | | | |
| Condition | 0.52 | 1, 19 | 0.48 | 0.03 |
| Time | 7.63 | 1, 19 | 0.01 | 0.29 |
| Condition x Time | 0.84 | 1, 19 | 0.37 | 0.04 |
| Depression | | | | |
| Condition | 0.10 | 1, 19 | 0.76 | 0.01 |
| Time | 10.29 | 1, 19 | 0.00 | 0.35 |
| Condition x Time | 3.23 | 1, 19 | 0.09 | 0.14 |
| Vigor | | | | |
| Condition | 10.94 | 1, 19 | 0.00 | 0.36 |
| Time | 2.58 | 1, 19 | 0.12 | 0.12 |
| Condition x Time | 2.80 | 1, 19 | 0.11 | 0.13 |
| Confusion | | | | |
| Condition | 7.93 | 1, 19 | 0.01 | 0.29 |
| Time | 33.78 | 1, 19 | 0.00 | 0.26 |
| Condition x Time | 9.91 | 1, 19 | 0.00 | 0.34 |

Interaction Effects

There was just one significant interaction effect which was for the POMS-SF subscale of confusion, $F(1,19) = 9.91, p = .00, \eta^2 = 0.34$. The researchers conducted follow-up post-hoc tests using paired samples t-tests. The pre-exercise subscale score for confusion in the resistance exercise condition ($M = 2.80, SD = 2.04$) was significantly higher than the pre-exercise subscale score for confusion in the aerobic exercise condition ($M = 1.30, SD = 1.34$), $t(19) = 3.25, p = .00$. However, the post-exercise subscale score for confusion in the resistance exercise condition ($M = 1.00, SD = 1.56$) was not significantly different from the post-exercise subscale score for confusion in the aerobic exercise condition ($M = 0.70, SD = 1.17; p = .25$). See Figure 1.

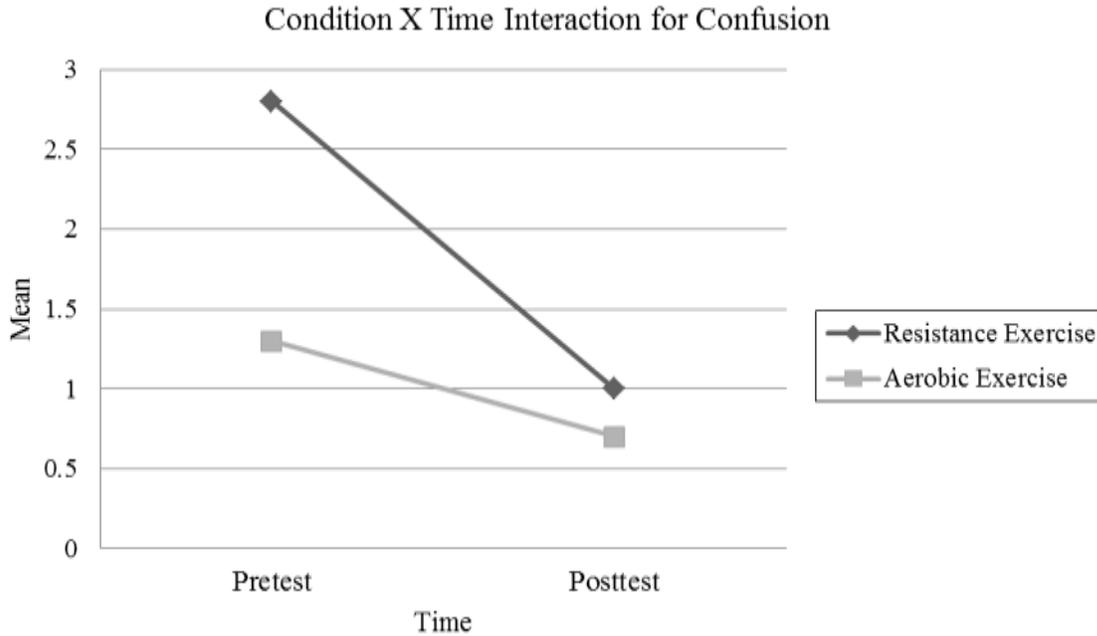


Figure 1. Time by condition interaction for confusion subscale scores.

Main Effects

The main effect for time was statistically significant for the following POMS-SF subscales: Tension, $F(1,19) = 24.11, p = .00, \eta^2 = 0.56$; Anger $F(1,19) = 24.20, p = .01, \eta^2 = 0.29$, Fatigue $F(1,19) = 7.63, p = .01, \eta^2 = 0.29$; Depression $F(1,19) = 10.29, p = .00, \eta^2 = 0.35$; and Confusion $F(1,19) = 33.78, p = .00, \eta^2 = 0.26$. All scores were significantly greater pre-exercise in comparison to post-exercise (see Figure 2). Effect sizes (Cohen’s d) for the main effect of time are in Table 1.

The main effect for condition was statistically significant for the POMS-SF subscales of vigor, $F(1,19) = 10.94, p = .00, \eta^2 = 0.36$, and confusion $F(1,19) = 7.93, p = .01, \eta^2 = 0.29$. The vigor score for the resistance exercise condition was significantly greater than the vigor score for the aerobic exercise condition across pre and posttest conditions (Cohen’s $d = .62$). Likewise, the confusion score for the resistance exercise condition was significantly greater than the confusion score for the aerobic exercise condition across pre- and post-test conditions (Cohen’s $d = 0.99$).

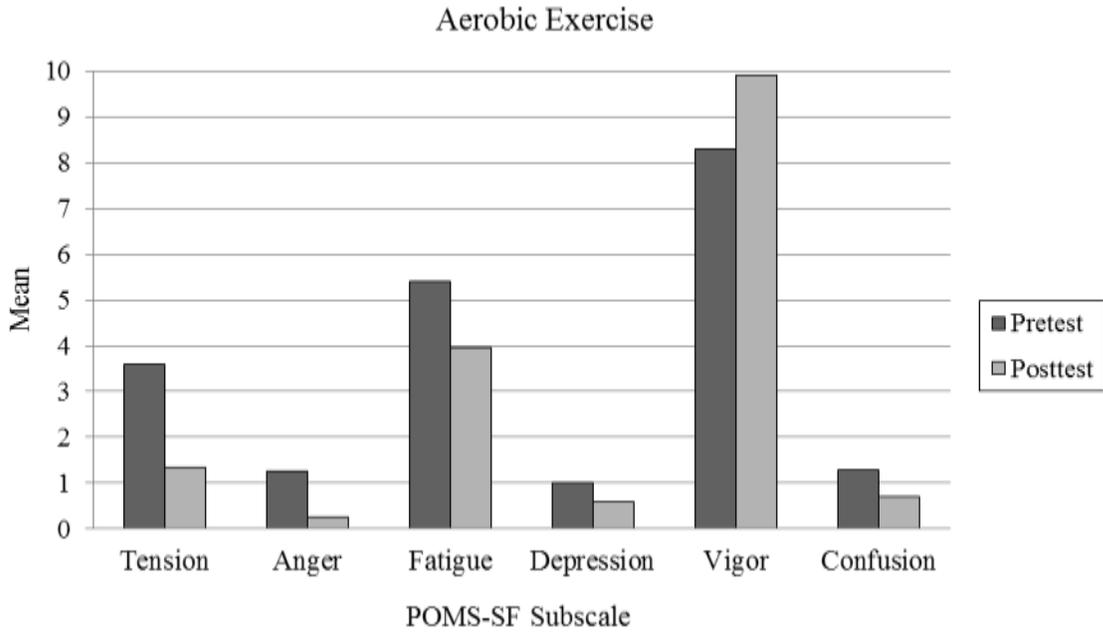


Figure 2. Mean pretest and posttest POMS-SF subscale scores for the aerobic exercise bout.

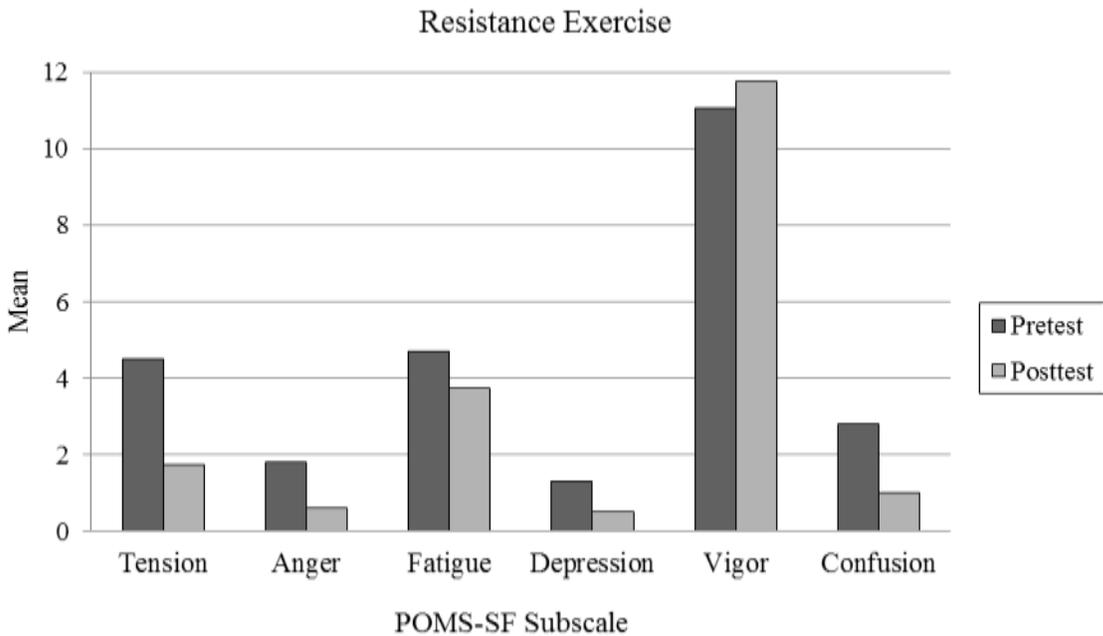


Figure 3. Mean pretest and posttest POMS-SF subscale scores for the resistance exercise bout.

Discussion

The current study examined the effect of a single bout of aerobic and resistance exercise on mood. The purpose of the study was to determine whether mood state changed from pre- to

post-exercise and whether the mode of exercise affected potential changes in mood state. In the present study, mood improved from before to after exercise in the tension, anger, fatigue, depression, and confusion subscales of the Profile of Mood States Short Form (POMS-SF; Shacham, 1983). Resistance exercise had a larger effect on tension ($d = 1.10$), depression ($d = 0.73$), vigor ($d = -0.50$), and confusion ($d = 1.25$) in comparison to aerobic exercise ($d = 0.78, 0.49, -0.19, 0.57$ respectively). Effect sizes for the subscale scores of anger and fatigue were comparable between resistance and aerobic exercise.

Researchers have found both aerobic and resistance exercise to improve mood states, but aerobic exercise appears to be the more researched mode of exercise. Hansen, Stevens, and Coast (2001) found improvements in vigor, fatigue, confusion, and overall mood the POMS measured when participants exercised at 60% of their age predicted maximal heart rate for three different durations: 10, 20, and 30 minutes of cycling on an ergometer. The present findings are partially consistent with Hansen et al. (2001) in that participant's fatigue and confusion (but not vigor) improved following an acute exercise bout of approximately 20 minutes. The present findings extend those of Hansen et al. to also encompass resistance training.

In a study by Roth (1989), active and inactive participants performed 20 minute aerobic exercise on a bicycle ergometer, and researchers used the POMS to examine any exercise-induced changes in mood. Results indicated exercise activity significantly altered mood, with reductions in tension specifically evident. The tension subscale scores improved in both the fit and unfit groups, suggesting fitness level does not affect changes in mood state due to exercise. The present study used an active sample, and findings regarding the tension subscale scores were consistent.

Fewer studies have examined the effect of resistance exercise on mood. Bartholomew (1999) examined the effects of resistance exercise on manipulated pre-exercise mood and reported an anxiolytic effect of exercise when compared to a placebo activity. Rocheleau, Webster, Bryan, and Frazier (2004) found improved mood following an acute bout of resistance training, and reported that workout duration and level of exertion significantly moderated the relationship of exercise to mood improvement. In the present study, researchers controlled for the duration and intensity of exercise; however, future studies comparing aerobic and resistance exercise might consider examining these variables.

The current study demonstrated a significant condition x time interaction for scores on the confusion subscale of the POMS. Post-hoc tests revealed that confusion scores were significantly higher prior to exercise in the resistance exercise, compared to the aerobic exercise condition, but there was no significant difference post-exercise. A potential explanation for this is that the resistance exercise bout was more cognitively demanding than the aerobic exercise bout. The resistance exercise bout consisted of three sets of 12 reps for five different exercises, while the aerobic exercise bout consisted of walking on the treadmill for a set duration. The aerobic exercise bout may have been more straightforward and easier to understand than the resistance exercise bout, and this may have accounted for the variation in confusion subscale scores before exercise, and the time by condition interaction for confusion. Future research comparing aerobic and resistance exercise should include a habituation trial in order to eliminate this potential effect.

Limitations and Future Directions

In assessing the findings of the current study, readers should note several limitations. First, participants were all college students who experienced fluctuating personal stress levels during the period of data collection, which may have affected mood state scores. Second, the POMS-SF measures six distinct mood states, but does not necessarily capture the entire domain of mood in that there may be other mood states that the POMS-SF did not measure. Therefore, others cannot draw inferences beyond the distinct mood states the POMS-SF measured. Finally, the researchers conducted this study with participants who fall under the medium to high physical activity level classification according to the U.S. Physical Activity Guidelines (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2008). Further research should directly compare the effects of aerobic and resistance exercise on mood in participants who are more representative of the general population.

An interesting line of research would be to compare the effects of aerobic versus resistance exercise on mood in depressed participants. The effects of exercise on mood can possibly be the most useful in individuals with mood disorders such as depression and anxiety. Future research also should seek to investigate the effect of *combined* aerobic and resistance exercise on mood state and depression. One entity has recommended a combination of aerobic and resistance exercise for overall lifelong health (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2008), and researchers should determine whether a combination of both is also beneficial for mood state and depression.

Conclusions

The current study suggests exercise is effective in improving mood, and this is associated with a moderate to large effect (Cohen, 1988). For the POMS-SF subscales of tension, anger, depression, and fatigue, there was no significant difference in rate of mood improvement between modes of exercise, although effect sizes were slightly higher with resistance training for the subscales of tension and depression. Considering this, individuals seeking exercise for the benefit of mood enhancement can perform resistance or aerobic exercise.

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Discussion Questions

1. Discuss some of the potential mechanisms by which exercise improves mood state.
2. How does mood differ from emotion?
3. What further studies would be valuable to enhance this research?

To Cite this Article

Chase, R., & Hutchinson, J. (2015, Summer). The effects of acute aerobic exercise versus resistance exercise on mood state. *Journal of Multidisciplinary Research*, 7(2), 5-16.

Journal of Multidisciplinary Research, Vol. 7, No. 2, Summer 2015, 17-30.
ISSN 1947-2900 (print) • ISSN 1947-2919 (online)
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JARA Schedule: A Tool for Understanding Research Methodology

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Abstract

The field of education research is a complex and difficult area particularly for early career researchers or students new to research. Focusing upon the most common types of research methods is a starting point as students, and those new to research would be more likely to encounter these methods in journals. The research literature contains arguments regarding the most frequent type of research methodology as well as the nature of this research. This article describes the authors' review of a select number of education research journals and the surprises the researchers encountered—in particular, challenges in the development of a suitable mapping tool called the Journal Article Research Analysis (JARA) schedule. The results of this study indicate there may be implications for education researchers and editors of journals as well as teachers of research.

Keywords: education research, research methodology, education research journals.

Introduction

The field of education research is broad and interrelated, with diverse disciplinary boundaries, including curriculum and pedagogy, education systems (early childhood, primary, and

secondary education), and various specialist areas such as assessment, leadership, technology, and gender. While academics in universities produce the majority of education research, other stakeholders such as government departments and non-government organizations also contribute.

A prime purpose for education research is to inform classroom practice through improvement in the process of teaching and learning; therefore, teachers need to be able to read and understand research. Policy makers, principals, and teachers have questioned the use and relevance of education research to benefit and assist classroom practice, education policy, and school leadership (Gore & Gitlin, 2004; Grossman, 2008; Miretzky, 2007). If research is to be of value to staff in the education sector, teachers need to identify and understand the research process and how they can make use of research findings. Discovering the strengths and weaknesses of a particular research methodology is of value. Teachers and pre-service teacher education students in postgraduate and undergraduate research methods courses should have a basic understanding of different types of education research methods.

Lack of clarity in published research reports regarding methodology and research design is of concern (Levin, 2006; Lingard, 2013; Yates, 2006), a view students in initial teacher education research methods classes frequently expressed to the authors (Knipe & Bottrell, 2013). Several studies have examined the type and nature of education research, for example, the research design in 196 teacher education articles (Sleeter, 2012), papers from the 2011 ATEA conference (Tuinamuana, 2012), and the methodology, topics, and content of teacher education research over a 10-year period (Murray, Nuttall, & Mitchell, 2008; Nuttall, Murray, Seddon, & Mitchell, 2006). The results from these reports reflect previous claims that education research tends more toward small-scale and one-time projects (Levin, 2004; Murray, Nuttall, & Mitchell, 2008).

Barriers arise when there is no shared understanding of the different types of research methodology such as method, data source, data gathering, and data analysis (Oancea, 2005). The widespread use of general terms, such as “qualitative research” and “quantitative research,” and the term “mixed method research,” which largely refers to the use of both verbal data and numerical data in a research study, can cause confusion. The education research field is wide-ranging and interconnected, so consumers of research, or those new to reading research, are often overwhelmed and unsure where to start.

Classifying and Categorizing Research

Several disciplines have reported methods of classifying research into various categories and the development of instruments researchers use to undertake this process. Early examples of classifications include Cooper (1984) in social science, and more recent classifications in areas such as Sports Science (Williams & Kendall, 2007), Criminal Justice (Kleck, Tark & Bellows, 2006), and Marketing (Ensign 2006). An early attempt to categorize education research methods by Barr, Almack, Ayer, Dashiell, Gates, Good, Johnson, Kelley, Mccall, Ruch, Symonds, Toops, Trabue, Whitney, Woody, Kilpatrick, Henmon, and Freeman (1931) identified eight areas, and more recently, Isaac and Michael (1995) designated nine categories. Chapters, rather than methodological classifications, mostly organize research books addressing the various aspects and components of research. Suter (2005) and Burns (2000) have argued that “case study research” classifies most education research. This has become an “over-arching” term to describe education research that does not fit with experimental, historical, or descriptive research methods.

Education research encompasses many different naturalistic, interpretative, hypothesis-generating models as well as hypothesis-testing models, which contribute to difficulties in determining categories of research.

Education researchers could place an initial emphasis on case study research methodology as a starting point in teaching research methods. It is likely consumers of research and early career researchers would more readily encounter this method in education research journals, and, therefore, would have a useful starting point for reading research and designing a research study. Confidence researchers can gain through understanding and knowing one method of research provides a springboard for understanding other types of research methodology.

The question then arises: What type of research method is most prevalent in the education research literature? Newcomers to education research are likely to read journal articles as they are a common source of published education research. With the emphasis on journal research, an investigation of a selection of journal publications would be worthwhile. The researchers determined there was a need to review education research journals to identify the most frequent education research methodology. The authors required a tool to classify education research into various research categories to undertake a review of research journals. This article describes the process involved in developing a classification tool, or schedule, which analyzed education research in research journals. This tool is named a Journal Article Research Analysis (JARA) Schedule. Further, the authors will examine the complexities that arose during the exercise.

Selecting Articles for Analysis

Research articles this study reviews came from major education journals. To select journals appropriate for analysis, five academics from three Australian universities nominated six research journals to which they would consider submitting a research article for publication. Each academic received the most recent list of journals under the code 'education journals' available from the former Department of Education, Employment, and Workplace Relations website.

Two or more academics selected 6 journals from the total of 30 nominated journals. Five journals had an "A" ranking, and one journal had a "B" ranking. The researchers randomly selected articles from the journal's website in the development of the JARA schedule. These articles encompassed one year's publication of a particular journal involving two or three issues. After an initial stage of examination of the articles, the researchers deleted some because they were not reporting research but were opinion or position papers. At this initial stage, some articles did not provide information about the type of 'data gathered' or the nature of the 'data analysis' – a factor that became a difficulty later on in the development process.

The authors established a research team for the development of the JARA Schedule. The authors had extensive experience in teaching research methods to teacher education students and at the postgraduate level. To strengthen the expertise of the team, the authors invited two academics who had expertise in research and publication, including supervision of numerous doctoral students, and in teaching research methods at the post-graduate level. The research team commenced the development process by examining schedules from other disciplines that could be applicable to the JARA Schedule. Additionally, the research team investigated a wide range of texts on education research to refine categories and reach mutual agreement on

definitions. The purpose of the JARA Schedule was to categorize the type of research to estimate frequency of use, not to make a value judgment about the research method.

Developing Categories for the JARA Schedule

Developing categories for the JARA Schedule included a category for Research Method and a separate category to identify the type of data the researchers collected. For example, the classification of *ex-post facto* research as causal-comparative appears in some texts, but in other texts as applicable to different research methods such as developmental research (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006). The research team concluded that the use of '*ex-post facto*' as a research method was misleading because the term referred to the fact that the data existed already. With the advent of data mining of large data bases, the use of existing data in research has wide application.

In the hypothesis generating categories, the term "Field Study" encompassed multiple research methods such as ethnography, grounded theory, and phenomenology, which refer to 'data gathered in the field.' "Action Research" became a separate category because of the emphasis on problem solving and its context specific nature. "Case study" became a category because the literature defines characteristics of case study. "Historical Research" methods were a separate category because of distinct and different characteristics. Hypothesis testing methods designated categories including "Causal Comparative," "Developmental (Longitudinal)" research, "Correlational" research, and intervention studies using "Quasi-experimental" methods. The remaining category for "Descriptive" research referred to an investigation that describes systematically a situation or area of interest factually and accurately, and usually pursues an objective. Descriptive research is a category useful in education to describe the many small scale and one-off studies found in journals.

The JARA Schedule contained nine separate categories for Research Methods four of these categories were for hypothesis testing models, and five of these were for hypothesis generating models. The JARA Schedule was useful in detecting the frequency of a group of research methods as distinct from a focus on one particular method. Categories for Data Gathering Methods encompassed six major areas as follows: data gathered by observation, survey, interview, document analysis including existing audio-video or electronic material, existing data in numerical form, and data from intervention studies as in quasi-experimental research designs. The coding method enabled identification of various combinations numbering 27 in total. However, the application of the JARA Schedule to the analysis of articles revealed that 'Survey' was the most frequent data gathering method, and 'Interview' was the second most common data gathering method. More than half the number of articles used only one method of data gathering. The researchers report details further in the article.

Data Source was a designated category, indicating from whom or from where the researchers gathered data. This included information from school students, teachers including trainee teachers, school administrators (principals, deputy principals), parents, community, curriculum, policy, existing numerical data (system data, records), and data from intervention studies, plus combinations of data sources. The JARA was able to detect a pattern in the use or not of multiple sources of data for research studies. The fourth category was Data Analysis techniques and methods. This included different methods of analysis of verbal data, including

software programs, analysis of numerical data such as means standard deviations and statistical tests, and statistical tests and methods of analyzing intervention data.

Establishing Inter-Rater Reliability

The researchers trialed JARA to determine inter-rater reliability and to gather feedback on the 'usability' of the schedule. They undertook the first trial with a group of academics independent of the research team, and they purposefully sampled from an Education Faculty at an Australian university. The aim of this phase was to measure the inter-rater reliability of the schedule. They circulated an expression of interest to several academic, doctoral, or post-doctoral staff. Seven members of staff attended the information session, and five academic staff participated in the trial, which required reviewing six articles using the JARA schedule.

A training workshop for those participating staff ensured a common understanding of the schedule and allowed for questions, points of clarification, and discussion. The researchers provided participants with the "JARA Coding Schedule" together with a copy of the "JARA Key." This is an accompanying sheet containing definitions and explanation of the categories. The participants then read the articles and completed the coding schedule. After the participants submitted the results, the researchers held a debriefing session to capture comments from the participants regarding the use of the schedule and to discuss the process. Feedback from the participants involved in the trial indicated they found the schedule to be a very useful tool that allowed them to focus on the various aspects of a research report. They were surprised when the article did not articulate clearly or omitted altogether significant components, such as the data source or the data analysis. All participants agreed that the category of research methods was the most difficult to code. One of the JARA Schedule research team analyzed the responses from participants. The researchers made modifications to the schedule to refine the format as a result of the feedback from participants.

The researchers then trialed the JARA Schedule with a group of university students undertaking a research methods subject as part of their initial teacher education program for a Master of Teaching degree. The researchers gave a copy of the JARA Coding Schedule together with a copy of the JARA Coding Key to 44 students and asked them to code individually one article the lecturer provided to them. The article the students selected was one they took from the trial the academic staff used. At the conclusion of the trial, the researchers invited students to comment on the usefulness of the JARA Schedule. Students reported the area that caused concern for them was categorizing the research method. Results showed equal division as to whether they should classify the method as a 'Case Study' or as 'Descriptive Research.' The discussion with the students reflected opinions the academics expressed in the first trial. This included the difficulty in classifying the research method the author reported and the depth of their own understanding of different research methods. The analysis from the second trial revealed more than 90% agreement in the categories Data Source, Data Gathering, and Data Analysis, but a low level of agreement for the category "Research Methods."

The researchers conducted a third trial with a group of eight experienced academics. The researchers purposely selected the academics from several Australian Universities to establish an acceptable inter-rater reliability measure. Six articles for this trial were from an 'A rank' education journal, using an edition that academics selected randomly and that was recently published. Results of this trial indicated an acceptable inter-rater reliability for all categories,

except research methods. Feedback about the process from participants in the third trial, particularly in terms of engagement with the content in the articles, revealed unexpected outcomes. The participants commented that the JARA Schedule had educational benefits, for example: “*I got more from the articles having to read them in this way as it makes you actively engage whilst reading,*” and “*the [JARA] schedule itself helps focus your reading, particularly on the methodology used*” were typical of comments. It was interesting that the eight academics were experienced researchers, yet the views they expressed reflected the views of the post-graduate students from an earlier trial. Both groups considered that the JARA Schedule has use as a learning tool as well as a research tool. As with the previous trials, participants raised concerns about the lack of detail in some research articles regarding data source and data analysis. Participants noted an increased awareness of their own writing, as the following remark indicates, “*the process is a reminder of what to include in your own presentation of research regarding methodology.*”

Four experienced academics were involved in the final trial of the JARA schedule. They reviewed five articles that one member of the research team purposefully sampled in order to eliminate opinion papers and ensure that articles provided adequate information for the researchers to make a judgment. One of the research team analyzed the results and indicated an acceptable inter-rater reliability of 86% for all categories.

Final Design of the JARA

The final model of the JARA schedule and score sheet incorporated feedback from those involved in four trials regarding the ‘usefulness,’ layout, and design. In classifying education research into mutually exclusive categories, the focus was upon research methodologies, separate from data gathered, sources of data, and data analysis techniques. The researchers designated four categories as follows:

- (1) Source of Data
(e.g., teachers, students, school administrators, parents, non-school personnel, etc.)
- (2) Data Gathering Technique
(e.g., interview, observation, survey, existing data, etc.)
- (3) Data Analysis Techniques
(e.g., categories, themes, open and axial coding, statistical analysis, etc.)
- (4) Research Methods
(e.g., case study, action research, field study, quasi-experimental, developmental, historical, etc.)

The JARA score sheet also includes three additional categories as follows: category for “sampling methods,” whether or not the author reported how issues of reliability, dependability, and validity or authenticity. The researchers included a category for ethical approval because many journals require authors to report that they had secured ethical approval for their research to take place.

JARA Schedule Research Project

The researchers undertook a research project to investigate the question for which they had designed JARA: that is, to find out the research methods educational researchers use most frequently. Journals from the list identified in the development of the JARA Schedule provided the articles. The researchers selected randomly the year and volume of journals from editions that participants could easily access online. The researchers selected articles from the following journals: *Journal of Education Administration*, *Australian Journal of Language and Literacy*, *Journal of Education Research*, *Australian Journal of Education*, and *European Education Research Journal*. The journal issues the researchers selected contained 107 articles. One of the JARA Schedule research team undertook the task of reading, reviewing, categorizing, and scoring the selected journals using the JARA Schedule. As a means of verification to improve validity of scoring, 2 other members of the research team randomly sampled 10 articles from the sample for scrutiny to verify the recorded scores. Of the 107 journal articles the researchers reviewed, 25 articles were not research reports, but were opinion or position papers, and the researchers removed them. Of the articles the researchers removed, 4 were from 36 articles from the *Journal of Education Administration*, 3 from 15 articles from the *Australian Journal of Language and Literacy*, 3 from 25 articles from the *Australian Education Researcher*, 5 from 6 articles from the *Journal of Education Research*, 6 from 18 articles from the *Australian Journal of Education*, and 4 from 9 articles from the *European Education Research Journal*. Table 1 shows this information.

Table 1
Journals – Research: Non-research

| | Journals | JEA | JLL | AER | JER | AJE | EER |
|-----------------------|----------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Research Articles | 82 | 32 | 12 | 20 | 5 | 12 | 5 |
| % | 76.6% | 88.8% | 80.0% | 86.9% | 83.4% | 66.7% | 55.6% |
| Non-Research Articles | 25 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 1 | 6 | 4 |
| % | 23.4% | 11.2% | 20.0% | 13.1% | 16.6% | 33.3% | 44.4% |
| Total | 107 | 36 | 15 | 23 | 6 | 18 | 9 |
| % | 100% | 100% | 100% | 100% | 100% | 100% | 100% |

Research Methods

Using the JARA Schedule to analyze articles, results indicated that the most used research method is Correlational research (24 studies - 29.3%), with Descriptive research used in 21 studies (25.6%). Together, correlational research and descriptive research account for more than half of the methods used in the research studies (54.9%). Only one-fifth of the studies used case study method, a result that does not support claims by Suter (2005). These results are available in Table 2.

Table 2
Research Methods – Frequency

| Method | N | % |
|----------------------------|----|--------|
| Case Study | 16 | 19.5% |
| Field Study | 10 | 12.2% |
| Action Research | 6 | 7.3% |
| Historical Research | 0 | 0.0% |
| Descriptive | 21 | 25.6% |
| Developmental Longitudinal | 1 | 1.3% |
| Correlational | 24 | 29.3% |
| Causal Comparative | 2 | 2.4% |
| Quasi-Experimental | 2 | 2.4% |
| Total | 82 | 100.0% |

The JARA Schedule contains four research methods that are hypothesis generating methods and four methods that are hypothesis testing methods. Descriptive methods may test hypotheses, but as the term implies, descriptive research investigates a question or describes a situation. Table 3 shows the research methods participants used in articles in these three groups indicating the major methods participants used are for hypothesis generating.

Table 3
Grouping of Methods

| Grouping | Hypothesis Generating | Descriptive | Hypothesis Testing |
|----------|-----------------------|-------------|--------------------|
| No | 32 | 21 | 29 |
| % | 39.0% | 25.6% | 35.4% |

Data Gathering

The category for data gathering methods indicated that nearly two thirds (53 - 64.6%) of research studies reported using one method only. Researchers used Survey only and Interview only in 35 studies (42.7%). Four studies used data mining as the data-gathering method, and four studies used pre-test post-test data. With nearly 40% of research studies using hypothesis

generating methods, it was surprising that nearly two-thirds of researchers used one data gathering method only. This result is available in Table 4.

Table 4
Summary of Data Gathering Method

| Data Gathering Method | No | % | | |
|---------------------------------------|----|-------|---------------|---------------|
| Survey only | 23 | 28.4% | | |
| Interview only | 12 | 14.8% | | |
| Observation only | 2 | 2.7% | One method | 53 (65.4%) |
| Document only | 4 | 4.9% | | |
| Data mining only | 12 | 14.8% | | |
| Survey & Interview | 4 | 4.9% | | |
| Survey & one other method | 1 | 1.2% | Two methods | 20 (24.7%) |
| Interview & one other method | 7 | 8.6% | | |
| Data mining & one other method | 4 | 4.9% | | |
| Pre Post Test & one other method | 4 | 4.9% | | |
| Interview & Survey & one other method | 5 | 6.2% | Three methods | 8 (9.9%) |
| Interview & two other methods | 3 | 3.7% | | |
| Total | 81 | 100% | 81 (100%) | |

Data Source

Results for the category Data Source showed students and teachers as a major data source for researchers. Researchers selected students as a source for 26 studies, teachers for 16 studies, and students and teachers for a further 9 studies. This information is available in Table 5.

Table 5
Data Source

| Data Source | No | % | No | % |
|---|----|-------|----|-------|
| Teachers | 16 | 19.8% | 51 | 59.3% |
| Students | 26 | 32.0% | | |
| Teachers & Students | 6 | 7.4% | | |
| Teachers & One Other Source | 6 | 7.4% | 12 | 14.8% |
| Students & One Other Source | 6 | 7.4% | | |
| School Administrators | 9 | 11.1% | 11 | 13.6% |
| Parents | 2 | 2.5% | | |
| Existing data | 5 | 6.2% | 5 | 6.2% |
| Non-school Based Personnel or Community | 5 | 6.2% | 2 | 2.4% |
| TOTAL | 81 | 100% | 81 | 100% |

The data analysis category recorded the data analysis methods researchers used. More than one third of studies used statistical test as the method of data analysis, which is consistent with correlational research being the most frequently used research method. Together, numerical data analysis, both descriptive and statistical, accounted for nearly two-thirds of research studies. This result is available in Table 6.

Table 6
Data Analysis

| Data Analysis | No. | % |
|-----------------------------------|-----|-------|
| Numerical Descriptive (Means& SD) | 16 | 19.7% |
| Statistical Analysis | 31 | 38.3% |
| Verbal Analysis Methods | 17 | 21.0% |
| Document Analysis | 1 | 1.2% |
| Not Clear or not included | 16 | 19.8% |
| Total | 81 | 100% |

Reliability or Dependability, Validity or Trustworthiness

Researchers scrutinized articles as to whether researchers addressed issues of Reliability or Dependability, Validity or Trustworthiness, depending on the design of the data gathering

instruments or mechanisms they used for the research study. Researchers provided information regarding the design of data gathering instruments in less than 20% of articles as visible in Table 7.

Table 7
Inclusion of Data Gathering Instruments-Mechanisms

| Instruments Mechanisms | Yes | No | Not Clear | Total |
|---------------------------|-------|-------|-----------|-------|
| Reliability-Dependability | 15 | 66 | 1 | 82 |
| | 18.3% | 80.5% | 1.2% | 100% |
| Validity-Trustworthiness | 16 | 65 | 1 | 82 |
| | 19.5% | 79.3% | 1.2% | 100% |

Sampling Methods and Ethics Approval

Researchers examined articles to determine the sampling methods researchers used, whether they used “Random” sampling methods, and what type of sampling method. Only five (6.1%) articles reported using random sampling methods. Of the non-random sampling methods researchers used, nearly two-thirds used “Purposeful” sampling methods; see Table 8. Only two articles contained information about or reference to seeking ethics approval.

Table 8
Sampling Methods

| Sampling Type | Random | Non-Random | Not Clear | Total | |
|---------------------|------------|------------|-----------|-----------|-------|
| No. | 5 | 73 | 4 | 82 | |
| Percentage | 6.1% | 89.0% | 4.9% | 100% | |
| Non-Random Sampling | Convenient | Purposeful | Cluster | Not Clear | Total |
| | 23 | 47 | 1 | 2 | 73 |
| | 31.5% | 64.4% | 1.4% | 2.7% | 100% |

Discussion

The results of the analysis of 107 journal articles revealed, in the first instance, that 25 articles (23.4%) were not research reports but were opinion or position papers. The analysis of the 82 research articles, using the JARA Schedule, revealed, in this particular sample, that correlational research was the most frequently used method followed by descriptive research. Our results do not support the claim by Burns (2000) and Suter (2005) that case study method was

the most frequent method in education research. We found Survey and Interview to be the two most frequently used data gathering instruments, which is consistent with the use of correlation and descriptive research. However, with nearly two-thirds of studies using one data gathering instrument only, and nearly 40% of studies using either case study, action research or field study, one could expect that a greater number of researchers would have made use of multiple data gathering methods to address issues of triangulation. A major purpose of education research is to inform and improve classroom practice, so it is not surprising that most of the research studies used students and teachers as a data source. The result showing that nearly 40% of researchers used statistical analysis is consistent with nearly 30% of researchers using correlation method.

Few researchers, from the sample of articles in this study, addressed issues of reliability-validity or dependability-authenticity, and only two researchers referred to seeking ethics approval for their research. This result is quite surprising because of the concern universities and departments of education show regarding the need to seek ethics approval for research in schools. Editors of journals should be more demanding in relation to the reporting of ethics approval. Only two studies indicated that the reported research replicated previous research the author had undertaken, a point that supports claims by Levin (2006) and Murray, Nuttall, and Mitchell (2008) about the prevalence of 'one-off' or small scale studies.

One could question the results of this study according to the limitations of the articles the researchers selected for analysis or by the limitations of the design of the instrument, the JARA Schedule, the researchers developed to undertake a journal article analysis. Nevertheless, the findings have provided a useful insight into important aspects of education research design.

Conclusion

The purpose of the project was to investigate the type of research methods in educational research. The results of this particular analysis have identified a discernible pattern showing a greater frequency for correlation research and descriptive research. It would be a useful introduction to the study of education research to concentrate initially on the two research methods, as distinct from attempting to cover a wide range of research methods.

The unexpected finding regarding the value of using the JARA Schedule as a learning tool and the positive feedback from experienced academics and new-to-research post-graduate students was an important one. Researchers also could use the JARA Schedule with research groups and post-graduate students as a simple but useful exercise to sharpen and expand knowledge and understanding of research methods.

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Discussion Questions

1. What questions arose for you regarding education research design?
2. Were the findings from this study a surprise? If so, why? If not, why not?
3. According to the JARA schedule, what categories should you address in your article?

To Cite this Article

Knipe, S., & Bottrell, C. (2015, Summer). JARA schedule: A tool for understanding research methodology. *Journal of Multidisciplinary Research*, 7(2), 17-30.

Journal of Multidisciplinary Research, Vol. 7, No. 2, Summer 2015, 31-42.
ISSN 1947-2900 (print) • ISSN 1947-2919 (online)
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A Student Perspective on Trust and the Leader-Follower Relationship: Implications for Leader Development

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Abstract

Cultivation and sustainment of trust has been a topic of scholarly discussion in that trust in the leader-follower relationship is critical for individual and organizational success. To further understand the importance of trust in the leadership domain, ($n = 213$) sophomore level students at a small military academy in the northeast United States, with a mission of building leaders of character, responded to Kouzes and Posner's (2010) Trust Worksheet. Three themes for the traits of trusted leaders emerged: (1) Humanistic, (2) Occupational, and (3) Value-oriented, while two themes for the effects of trusted leaders emerged: (1) Relational and (2) Organizational. Implications offer a lens toward organizational behavior and leader development.

Keywords: trust, leader, follower, leader development.

Introduction

The importance of trust on individual and organizational culture is unequivocal (Clegg, Unsworth, Epitropaki & Parker, 2002; Dibben, 2000; Kramer & Tyller, 1996; Lewicki, McAllister & Bies, 1998; Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt & Camerer, 1998). A trusting environment creates an atmosphere of increased employee self-esteem, enhanced productivity, and organizational communication. Conversely, a lack of trust stunts occupational productivity and lends itself to breakdowns in relationship development and employee satisfaction (Caldwell, Bischoff & Karri, 2002; Caldwell, Hayes, Karri, & Bernal, 2008; Gordon & Gilley, 2012). Recognizing the imperative nature of individual and organizational success in the workplace, domains such as management and leadership have taken great interest in understanding and developing trust in their leaders and followers (Schaubroeck, Lam, & Peng, 2011; Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard, & Werner, 1998; Zaffane, 2010). One domain that is relatively uncharted, is educational field, where although colleges and universities provide personal leadership development opportunities for students (Astin & Astin, 2000; Posner, Crawford, & Denniston-Stewart, 2015), an understanding of students' perceptions of such programs is sparse.

The purpose of the current investigation is to contribute a clarity of the perception of trust on the leader-follower-team dynamic, by sampling students at a small military academy with a focus on leader development. Relevant literature supporting the cultivation and maintenance of trust as a tool for leader and organizational growth frames the beginning pages of this article. Results to the questions: What are traits of leaders you trust and do not trust, and what effects do these traits have on you or your team? Interpretation of findings and implications for organizational and leader development will conclude the article.

The Construct of Trust

Trust is a psychological construct crucial to the formation and sustainment of human relationships (Davis, Schoorman, Mayer, & Tan, 2000; Krot & Lewicka, 2012; Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995; Svensson, 2005). In a relational context, trust comprises the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of another individual (Denton, 2009; Gillespie & Mann, 2004; Maccoby, 1995; McKnight, Cummings & Chervanny, 1998). Much of the research surrounding human vulnerability and expectations of others suggests a

multidimensional characterization of both experiences and cultural socialization processes highlighting cognitive, affective, and behavioral facets (Bagraim & Hime, 2007). Cognitive expectations refer to beliefs about another's trustworthiness; affective expectations refer to the role of emotions in the relationship development process; behavioral expectations refer to relying on and disclosing sensitive information to others (Cummings & Bromiley, 1996; Clarke & Payne, 1997; Gillespie & Mann, 2004; McAllister, 1995). Individuals who are willing to take a risk and disclose in accordance with the notion that an individual is trustworthy are willing to build relationships and trust others. Individuals who believe, feel, and disclose in accordance with the notion that an individual is not trustworthy tend to be less trusting of an ensuing relationship and are unwilling to take a risk to be vulnerable with the development or sustainment of a relationship (Caldwell & Calpham, 2003; Mayer et al., 1995; Mayer & Gavin, 2005).

Cultivating and Sustaining Trust: Leaders' Actions

As well as being aware of the multidimensional nature of trust and how it affects relationships and the risk-taking environment within an organization, there are several actions a leader may take to create trust. Galford and Drapeau (2002) note a five-stage trust building approach consisting of engaging, listening, envisioning, framing, and committing. The engaging stage cultivates the initial relationship process, in that finding common ground with another person is a primal aspect of developing a connection. If one cannot engage with the person one is working with, that person may not be receptive to the idea of being open with information (Galford & Drapeau, 2002). Mutual respect in a relationship has the power to create a focus on sharing information everyone can acknowledge as useful for improving team and organizational performance (Maccoby, 1995). The listening stage is an essential part of building a trusting relationship, in that it shows caring about the person with whom one is communicating; listening is about more than being quiet while the other person speaks. Listening is about hearing what others are saying as well as what they are not saying (Galford & Drapeau, 2002). Those who listen well tend to present an authentically warm attitude toward another person, which allows cognitive and affective aspects of a relationship to flourish (Cummings & Bromiley, 1996; Gordon & Gilley, 2012). During the framing stage, leaders gain the opportunity to prove that not only listen but also understand. At this juncture, one builds credibility through the behavioral dimension. The envisioning stage enables leaders to create an image of themselves, and for the person with whom they are working, illustrating what is to come; in essence, providing the path forward for both the leader and follower (Galford & Drapeau, 2002). Envisioning emerges from perceptions regarding another's benevolence, integrity, and consistency of behavior; this may develop by communicating as well as by acting (Bagraim & Hime, 2007). The last stage in creating a trusting relationship is commitment, which speaks to living out promises one makes. It presents the opportunity for individuals to align words with actions, and without it, the first four stages are futile (Galford & Drapeau, 2002).

Without trust, leaders cannot build meaningful relationships; thus, they cannot lead effectively. Relationships develop when mutual respect and understanding are present. Without a commitment to truth, openness, and candor, a solid relationship cannot form. All trusting relationships have meaningful incentives at stake; the trusting party must understand the risks in the relationship and actively work to sustain a mutual connection (Davis et al., 2000). Trust implies, not only acknowledging the desire to enter into a social contract, but also the awareness

that an individual is willing to accept the risks inherent within such a relationship (Caldwell et al., 2008; Mayer et al., 1995; Mayer & Gavin, 2005), a critical aspect for emerging and current leaders to be aware of as they work toward cultivating and sustaining trust.

Methodology

With Institutional Review Board approval, ($n=213$) sophomore students at a small military academy in the northeast United States completed an open-ended survey during a leadership workshop in which the entire sophomore class participated during the first week of the semester. Students responded to Kouzes and Posner's (2010) Trust Worksheet, asking the following questions: (1) What are traits of a leader you trust and traits of a leader you do not trust, and (2) What effects do these traits have on you or your team? Respondents answered questions anonymously through a paper and pencil medium, varying from single word answers to multiple sentences.

Data Analysis

Of the $N=226$ students in the sophomore class, the researchers received $n=213$ responses. The researchers analyzed a total of 2,187 responses, which form the basis for this article. Once the researchers collected initial data, a team of leadership scholars reviewed all responses using open-coding until themes and high corroboration emerged (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). After studying the initial structure, members of the research team conducted an on-going analysis to cluster segments of responses with similar thematic content into codes. The researchers reviewed students' responses for redundancy until the most accurate, yet succinct, codes emerged from text segments (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). The researchers gave codes a brief title to convey the collective participants' meaning, and common agreement became part of the ultimate thematic structure. Final themes captured overarching aspects of the data in relation to the research question and represent patterned responses within the data set. Thematic analysis is a useful qualitative method in that it is a flexible approach that provides the predominant themes under investigation (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Results

Analysis of participants' responses revealed three major themes for the traits of a trusted leader, (1) Humanistic, (2) Occupational, and (3) Value-oriented and two major themes for the effects of a trusted leader on a team, (1) Relational, and (2) Organizational (see Table 1). Furthermore, all identified themes have both positive and negative characteristics that accompany them. Descriptions of each theme are below in the form of student quotes. In order to retain participant anonymity, the researchers gave students numerical identifiers (e.g., S 1, S 2).

Table 1
Traits and Effects Determining the Leader-Follower Relationship

| Category | Higher Order Themes | Lower Order Themes | |
|-------------------------|----------------------|---|--|
| | | Positive (1,149) | Negative (1,042) |
| Traits of Trust (1,329) | Humanistic (735) | Understanding (57) Caring (40) Humble (34) | Selfish (66) Inconsistent (36) Overconfident (33) |
| | Occupational (354) | Competent (46) Confidence (36) Motivated (31) | Incompetent (30) Lazy (21) Authoritarian (14) |
| | Values (244) | Honest (57) Respectful (29) Fair (20) | Dishonest (46) Revealing (18) Biased (15) |
| Effects of Trust (858) | Relational (534) | Trust gained (43) Connected to leader (35) Motivated (31) | Distant (75) Lack of trust (43) Loss of respect (43) |
| | Organizational (324) | Supported (46) Hard work (43) Teambuilding (38) | Lack of team (62) Lack of productivity (36) Oppressive work environment (29) |

Note. Parentheses contain the number of instances associated with each dimension
 Only the top three lower order themes appear for each quadrant.

Traits of Trust

Traits, the largest section of the two components (traits vs. effects), comprises a total of 1,329 student responses, with positive traits accumulating 688 replies and negative traits accumulating 645 replies. Nearly two-thirds of all responses (61%) indicated leader traits are highly important when leading and developing followers. This component contains three dimensions: humanistic, occupational, and value-oriented. These traits, when positive, can elicit trust in followers; when these traits skew in a negative direction, however, mistrust is evident in subordinates. The nature of the trusting relationship ultimately affects followers' attitudes and behaviors. Together, these traits lead to subordinates' tending to trust or mistrust their leaders.

Humanistic: Positive

Humanistic skills emerged as a robust leader component with 292 student responses. Students used comments such as “caring,” “listening,” “good communication,” and “understanding” to underscore the powerful climate leaders can cultivate through relational characteristics. One student stated that a leader who demonstrates humanistic traits will “drop what she is doing no matter what, in an attempt to be there for you” (S 171). Another student remarked that a relational leader will “show understanding and honesty through tough situations” (S 141). Student 139 observed that a positive intrapersonal relationship between a leader and follower occurs when a “person is very open, tells you what is on their mind, and is not afraid to correct or criticize when something is wrong.”

Humanistic: Negative

Negative humanistic skills are the most robust factor in the skills category, with 439 total student responses. This theme emphasizes the divisive interpersonal relationships that hinder a leader’s role when attempting to guide others. Students use words such as “selfish,” “overconfident,” “inconsistent,” and “unsupportive” to define the leader-follower connection. Respondents regularly noted a level of self-centeredness to illustrate this theme. Student 139 comments on the tumultuous nature of leaders’ actions: “When a person refers to himself, yet never reveals much about himself or his personality.” Student 142 mentions a leader’s “going behind your back and only thinking of himself; selfish,” while student 142 cites “overconfident, pompous, and small minded” (S 114) to describe the negative humanistic skills an untrusted leader creates with fellow members.

Occupational: Positive

Work skills make up roughly 18% of all feedback in the traits section. These traits stress the effect a leader with “confidence,” “competence,” and “motivation” has on building a respectful and trusted team of subordinates. Student 174 considers that effective leaders have “shown competence in tasks and does this with humbleness and confidence.” Student 20 states that leaders who “rewarded subordinates when work was done well” manifest a positive work ethic in organizational members.

Occupational: Negative

Work skills construct 11% of all negative traits. “Laziness” and “incompetence” emerge as the two main traits. Students (S 20 and S 173, respectively) give an example of negative work ethics they have experienced from their leaders. Student 20 notes a leader as “not setting a good example for others, yet tried to hold others to a high standard.” Student 173 observes that an untrusted leader “does not follow through with work, or worry about consequences.” Together, the lack of appropriate modeling of work skills and behaviors appear to be detrimental to the relationship between leader and follower.

Value-oriented: Positive

Students provide words that describe positive values such as “honest,” “respectful,” “genuine,” “trustworthy,” “moral,” and “fair.” One student sums up those three terms: “Honesty and the ability to always be truthful. Supportive: someone who you can count on and who puts the needs of others before her own. Understanding: someone who can relate the experience that you are going through to her own” (S 137). Another student feels effective leaders have “strong moral values, and do the right things without other motives” (S 93).

Value-oriented: Negative

Among 92 responses, the notion of negative values arises as the last theme within negative value traits. Students use terms such as “dishonest,” “revealing,” “judgmental,” and “biased” to describe the traits that leaders in this theme may demonstrate. Student 137’s definition of disloyalty gives emphasis to negative values associated with a leader’s actions: “disloyalty: someone who tries to evade a false image of themselves in order to impress others, trying to be someone that they are not.”

Effects of Leadership Traits on Self and Team

Effects, the second section of the two components (traits vs. effects), compiles a total of 858 student responses, with positive effects accumulating 461 replies and negative effects accumulating 397 replies. Positive effects amount to more than half (53%) of the total results while negative effects account for 47% of the total results. Within this component, two dimensions define the effects of leadership traits: relational and organizational. Subthemes describe the discrete traits’ influence the individuals with whom leaders interact.

Relational: Positive

The relational effects theme focuses on leaders’ ability to create an empowering occupational and organizational environment as a result of their trusted actions toward others. Student responses include phrases such as “trust gained,” “respect gained,” “confidence in leader,” and “connection to leader.” Student 11 comments: “[I] felt like I could open up to this person, could go to this person for good advice, and know that I could trust [their] advice. I felt like I could go to them for any problem.” Student 125 states that effective leadership “leads to a better working atmosphere and to higher productivity. I feel more inclined to speak to my superiors if I trust them.” Such a climate built on trust from the leader allowed Student 104 “to trust the leader, and respect her, while Student 117 felt the leader’s actions “helped me gain confidence that I could do it. [It] Boosted morale, and gained my trust.”

Relational: Negative

The negative personal effects on self and on team describe the harsh interpersonal environment leaders create for fellow workers as a result of their actions. Such personal discord features: “no trust” in a leader’s skills, a “closed off” environment, “no motivation,” “apathy,”

“loss of respect,” and even “anger” with leaders and self-doubt in followers. Speaking to these detrimental consequences leaders can have on their people, Student 1 shares that, as a result of having a negative leader, I “lost all respect and tried to avoid this person as much as possible. I felt this leader was a ticking time bomb.” Student 49 shares, “People had no confidence in him, morale was low, people questioned all tasks, and people felt unsafe.” In a severe case, Student 79 comments, “followers (if any), [would] distrust, dislike, or possibly hate their job and their boss, [thus] a lack of effort to complete tasks.”

Organizational: Positive

The organizational environment a leader creates surfaced most frequently of the three categories for positive effects. Words such as “security” and “hard work” described leaders’ positive effects on a team. Responses varied from “I want to do better, wanted to emulate” (S 14) to “I did what she said just to please her, not keep myself out of trouble” (S 22) and “made coming to that person easier, revealed feelings about situations more often, and made me want to work for them” (S 213). The responses indicate that a leader’s positive influence can encourage team cohesion and a thriving professional environment.

Organizational: Negative

One hundred forty three responses illustrate the damaging effect leaders can have on their team. Students used terms such as “lack of productivity” and “no team unity” to show how a negative organizational environment shapes the overall group. Other comments included: “People didn’t care about the task at hand” (S 15) and “I found ways around doing what she said out of pure spite, [creating] lower levels of productivity, morale, and team unity” (S 22). This category examines the negative organizational climate that the lack of trust in a leader creates. Such ideas as feeling “unsupported,” having “negative experiences” at work, and even feeling “mutinous” at times constitute environmental attributes any leader should try to mitigate for his or her subordinates that leaders should try to mitigate for their subordinates.

Discussion

Academic and applied settings increasingly recognize the critical nature of developing an environment of interpersonal trust for individual and organizational effectiveness. Employees’ trust in their leaders directly relates to a range of productivity-related processes and outcomes, such as the quality of communication and problem-solving, discretionary effort, organizational citizenship and commitment, and the rate of employee turnover (Gillespie & Mann, 2004). A strong leader-follower relationship directly influences organizational and team performance as well as bottom line indicators. No organization can operate successfully without interpersonal trust, and thus, no leader can ignore the powerful effects of trust among the organization (Fairholm & Fairholm, 2009).

In this study, researchers condensed responses into three higher-order themes of trusting traits, whose roots lie in aspects of humanistic, occupational, and value-driven leadership. Within these themes, students discuss positive and trusting leaders as possessing a caring, understanding, competent, honest, and open leadership style. Students conversely note negative and untrusted

leaders as unsupportive, selfish, incompetent, lazy, and dishonest. Together, these higher order themes and descriptive lower order themes highlight the caring and communicative atmosphere elite leaders must role model for not only themselves but also, more importantly, for the organization.

Conversely, when researchers asked students to comment on the effects of leaders' traits, two higher order themes emerged with regard to personal and organizational outcomes. Positive trusting traits coincided with outcomes of motivation, respect, security, communication, and connection to the leader. Negative trusting traits corresponded to an environment that lacked motivation, communication, productivity, unity, and closeness. The study's results appear congruent with other research on non-student populations, noting the power of leaders' behaviors in shaping and sustaining trust, a concept largely present in the leaders' communicative and supportive behaviors (Gillespie & Mann, 2004; Fairholm & Fairholm, 2009). Clearly, caring and communication, as well as role modeling, become crucial to the needs of emerging student leaders in the pursuit of a trusting environment.

In this sample, the roles and responsibilities of the leader in trust building (traits) and trust sustainment (effects) show clearly the need for humanistic leaders, unafraid to show care, respect, and a communicative style with their people. Further, leaders, managers, executives, and emerging leaders must build an organizational culture in which leader and follower can relate, communicate, and behave in a trusting way in accomplishing mutually valued goals (Fairholm & Fairholm, 2009; Tser-Yieth, Shiu-Nan, & York, 2012). Considering that the leader-follower relationship is often voluntary, trust becomes even more essential to the development and sustainment of a healthy working environment. Leaders are most successful when they unite their staffs in collaborative action without losing the individual freedom they and their followers want. Leadership is a special kind of culture-building task, based on mutual and interactive care, role modeling, and competence. Without such skills, leaders enjoy little power in relationships, especially those outside their immediate sphere of influence.

Implications

A thorough leader development strategy should be aware of the notion that trust is a multidimensional construct that comprises important foundational components of relationship-building. Within this sample, the themes of caring and communication, role modeling, and competence building, for and with others, clearly demarcate the cultivation and sustainment of trust. The willingness to take the interests of others into consideration, while role-modeling and valuing their development, stands as a crucial aspect for emerging and current leaders. When leaders actively practice these components, they may develop and nurture lasting relationships, the cornerstones of trust, among individuals and within organizations. Those who practice such a thorough leader development strategy, grounded in humanism and role modeling, minimize the costly effects of poor leadership traits on the organization.

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Discussion Questions

1. How might an organization integrate the findings of this study in its mission or vision, or in its continuing education requirements?
2. How might the traits and effects of trust on the leader-follower perspective change with a different sample?
3. How does an organization, an institution, or a sole leader build a culture of trust effectively and efficiently?

To Cite this Article

Martin, I. H., Naylor, A. H., Jefferson, J. K., David, N., & Cavazos, A. (2015, Summer). A student perspective on trust and the leader-follower relationship: Implications for leader development. *Journal of Multidisciplinary Research*, 7(2), 31-42.

Death by Hazing: Should there be a Federal Law Against Fraternity and Sorority Hazing?¹

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Abstract

Hazing, the practice of initiating new members into a group, often through harassment and humiliation, is a tradition that has endured in United States culture for decades. Hazing, and its negative conduct, leads to serious injury and even death. The purpose of this article is to review the current state of the law and propose a solution that will help decrease the number of deaths caused by hazing each year.

Keywords: hazing, fraternity, sorority, harassment, Clery Act, FERPA, federal law

Introduction

“Can you name another social institution, besides the college fraternity, in which 19, 20 and 21 year-old young men have absolute power and authority over the lives of 17 and 18 year-old young men?”² Hazing, the practice of initiating new members into a group, often through harassment and humiliation, is a tradition that has endured in United States culture for decades. Nevertheless, many young people submit themselves each year to hazing in hopes of acceptance into the exclusive fraternities and sororities on college campuses, or Greek life.

Hazing, and its negative conduct, leads to serious injury and even death. For example, Armando Villa, along with other new recruits, was pledging the Zeta Mu chapter of Pi Kappa Phi

¹ Editors' Note: This article uses legal style citations and notes.

² Dr. Gentry McCreary, *Hazing's Perfect Storm - The American College Fraternity*, DOCTOR GENTRY'S BLOG (Sept. 24, 2013, 8:30 AM), <http://doctorgentry.blogspot.com/> [hereinafter *Hazing's Perfect Storm*]. Dr. Gentry often speaks to groups about hazing. *Id.* Dr. Gentry asks the audience this exact question each time he speaks to a group. *Id.* However, no one has been able to provide him with an answer. *Id.* Even though fraternities and sororities have chapter advisors and national headquarters, advisors and headquarters do not participate in the chapter's decision-making process. *Id.*

at California State University at Northridge in July 2014.³ As part of a hazing ritual, the pledges hiked eighteen miles through the Angeles National Forest while blindfolded. Members of the fraternity took the pledges' cell phones and shoes away, and gave the pledges an insufficient supply of water for all the pledges to share during the hike. At one point, Villa passed out during the hike and never regained consciousness. While at the hospital, Villa's body temperature rose to 108.8 degrees, and he died. Later, the coroner concluded that heat stroke caused Villa's death.⁴

Since 2005, more than sixty college students have died in hazing related incidents, with five of those students dying in 2013 alone.⁵ Even with this alarming number, Congress continues to fail to propose and pass legislation that would serve as an effective deterrent to hazing in Greek organizations. Perhaps some legislators are unaware of the seriousness of this problem because there is no federal or state agency that collects statistical data on hazing incidents.⁶ Even though some legislators have recognized there is a serious hazing problem and have proposed federal anti-hazing legislation, none of these proposals have successfully made it to the congressional floor for a vote.⁷

The purpose of this article is to review the current state of the law and propose a solution that will help decrease the number of deaths caused by hazing each year.⁸ Part I discusses the history of hazing. This section also discusses the definition of hazing as well as how the definition varies from state to state. Part II examines the Crime Awareness and Campus Security Act of 1990 ("Clery Act") and the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act ("FERPA"). Part III discusses the outcomes of prior attempts to propose anti-hazing federal regulation. Last, Part IV proposes a definition for hazing and a solution intended to reduce the number of students that die each year due to hazing activity.

³ Deborah Hastings, Cal State Northridge student's death was caused by hazing university declares, N.Y. DAILY NEWS (Sept. 5, 2014), <http://www.nydailynews.com/news/national/cal-state-northridge-student-death-ruled-hazing-university-article-1.1929919>.

⁴ Susan Abram & Brenda Gazzar, CSUN hazing case nearly complete, soon to be reviewed by District Attorney, L.A. Daily News (Oct. 23, 2014), <http://www.dailynews.com/social-affairs/20141023/csun-hazing-case-nearly-complete-soon-to-be-reviewed-by-district-attorney>.

⁵ Kelly Gilblom & John Lauerman, *Colleges Crack Down on Fraternities as Safety Concerns Mount*, BLOOMBERG (Sept. 27, 2014), <http://www.bloomberg.com/news/2014-09-26/colleges-crack-down-on-fraternities-as-safety-concerns-mount.html>; Hank Nuwer, *The Hazing Reader*, INDIANA UNIV. PRESS (April 22, 2014), <http://www.hanknuwer.com/hazingdeaths.html> [hereinafter *The Hazing Reader*]; see also Tracy Connor, *Hazing Death of Baruch Freshman Declared a Homicide*, NBC (Feb. 14, 2014), <http://www.nbcnews.com/news/us-news/hazing-death-baruch-freshman-declared-homicide-n28441>. Since 2005, six students were paralyzed as a result of hazing incidents. *Hazing Death of Baruch Freshman Declared a Homicide*.

⁶ Allison McGinley, *Experts warn hazing a dangerous trend on the rise*, CLICK ORLANDO (Jan. 12, 2012, 6:18 AM), <http://www.clickorlando.com/news/Experts-warn-hazing-a-dangerous-trend-on-the-rise/-/1637132/7803756/-/3r7c5qz/-/index.html>

⁷ See generally David Glovin, *Mother of Golf Prodigy in Hazing Death Defied by FratPAC*, BLOOMBERG (July 24, 2013), <http://www.bloomberg.com/news/2013-07-24/mother-of-golf-prodigy-in-hazing-death-defied-by-fratpac.html> (indicating that Frederica Wilson has yet to make good on her promise to introduce a federal anti-hazing bill); Hazing Prohibition Act of 2003, H.R. 1207, 108th Cong. (2003) (showing that Diane Watson's federal anti-hazing legislation proposal did not make it out of committee).

⁸ This article will focus only on the criminal law aspects of hazing and will not address any preemption or constitutional issues under the Fourteenth Amendment.

I. AN OVERVIEW OF HAZING

Since its introduction in Greek letter organizations, hazing has become the activity of choice for these organizations to establish a member's loyalty. The number of hazing related deaths continues to rise, but many still encourage hazing because they feel it is a "rite of passage."⁹ To understand why hazing is still prevalent among Greek letter organizations, it is important to examine the origin and definition of hazing.

A. The History of Hazing

Hazing activities date back to when Plato founded his academy in 387 B.C.¹⁰ Plato encouraged the young men in his academy to play practical jokes on newcomers because he believed newcomers "had to be polished before he could become a regular member."¹¹ Hazing continued throughout the Middle Ages.¹² Starting in the fifteenth century, hazing, then known as "pennalism," became more common in England at universities such as Cambridge University and the University of Oxford.¹³ Scholars from these universities used hazing practices, such as fagging,¹⁴ to determine whether a person was worthy of future employment.¹⁵ Eventually, hazing

⁹ See Walter Kimbrough, *Handling Hazing*, AM. COUNCIL ON EDUC. (2012), available at <http://www.acenet.edu/the-presidency/columns-and-features/Pages/Handling-Hazing.aspx> (stating that hazing is a necessary right of passage and an "important step on the road to developing identity"); HANK NUWER, *WRONGS OF PASSAGE: FRATERNITIES, SORORITIES, HAZING, AND BINGE DRINKING* 194 (1999) [hereinafter *WRONGS OF PASSAGE*]; Ruth Sterner, *The History of Hazing in American Higher Education*, WORDPRESS, 3 (2008), <http://ruthsterner.files.wordpress.com/2008/05/histpdf.pdf>; see also Dave Westol, *Warning Signs of Hazing*, in *HAZING ON CAMPUS* 31, 31 (Association of Fraternity Advisors, Issues in Focus, 2005), available at http://web.centre.edu/schutts/Hazing_on_Campus.pdf (listing "I went through it, so they have to go through it" as one standard excuse for why hazing should be allowed). Since 1970, there has been at least one hazing related death a year on a college campus. *WRONGS OF PASSAGE*, *supra*. From the 1980's–2000, the average number of hazing related deaths increased from five and one half to eighteen a year. Sterner, *supra*.

¹⁰ Stephen Dominy, Jeff Gardner, Michelle Robinson, *Hazing: A View From All Angles* 3 (Dec. 3, 2010) (unpublished, Florida State University) (on file with author), available at <http://webcache.googleusercontent.com/search?q=cache:dZrobA-cwHwJ:mrobinsonfsu.files.wordpress.com/2012/04/history-of-hazing.docx+Hazing:+A+View+from+All+Angles+Stephen+Dominy&cd=1&hl=en&ct=clnk&gl=us&client=safar>; Sterner, *supra* note 9, at 3; see also *WRONGS OF PASSAGE*, *supra* note 9, at 92 (comparing the way the young boys in the school acted to the way a "ferocious beast" acted).

¹¹ Erica Blackburn, *Couple Launches Antihaze Hotline to Prevent Tragic Deaths*, EMPOWER (July, 11 2012), <http://www.empowermagazine.com/couple-launches-antihaze-hotline-to-prevent-tragic-deaths/>.

¹² Chad W. Ellsworth, *Definitions of Hazing: Differences Among Selected Student Organizations* 11–12 (2004) (unpublished A.M. thesis, University of Maryland) (on file with University of Maryland), available at <http://drum.lib.umd.edu/bitstream/1903/1577/1/umi-umd-1647.pdf> [hereinafter *Definitions in Hazing*]; Sterner, *supra* note 9, at 4. Older students would make first year students demonstrate "animal like submissions." *Definitions in Hazing*, *supra*. First year students were also hit with wooden objects or subjected to fagging. *Id.* at 12. Fagging occurs when an older student treats a younger student like a servant. *Id.*

¹³ HANK NUWER, *BROKEN PLEDGES: THE DEADLY RITE OF HAZING* 117 (1990).

¹⁴ *Id.*; see generally *School Fagging*, THE SPECTATOR ARCHIVE (Oct. 10, 1891), <http://archive.spectator.co.uk/article/10th-october-1891/28/school-fagging> (defining fagging as a "right

practices emerged in the United States, with the faculty being the first to dictate the terms of hazing. For example, professors at Harvard University instituted a law that required freshmen to obey orders from upperclassmen and run errands for the upperclassmen.¹⁶ Starting in the nineteenth century, student organizations such as literary societies began to use hazing practices.¹⁷

Greek letter organizations, such as fraternities and sororities, started engaging in hazing as a common practice in the 1800s.¹⁸ In 1873, the Kappa Alpha society at Cornell University became the first fraternity to have a member die from hazing.¹⁹ Two society members blindfolded a pledge,²⁰ Mortimor N. Leggett, and left him alone in the dark.²¹ The darkness disoriented Leggett, and he fell into a gorge. In 1912, Isaac William Rand and his roommates were pledging a fraternity at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill.²² One night, four fraternity brothers took the pledges from their rooms and carried them to the athletic field. The brothers then forced the pledges to sing and dance while standing on barrels. Rand fell off his barrel and cut his jugular vein, causing him to bleed to death.

During the Vietnam War, membership rates of Greek letter organizations dropped, and fraternities abandoned their hazing rituals in hopes of retaining more members.²³ However, once the war concluded, Greek membership rates began to rise again, and fraternities resumed their hazing rituals. In November 1974, William Flowers pledge Zeta Beta Tau at Monmouth College.²⁴ The fraternity members brought five pledges to the beach, forced the pledges to dig graves in the sand, and then made them lie in the graves.²⁵ Fraternity brothers then scooped sand on top of the pledges. Flowers' grave collapsed on him, and his lungs filled up with sand. He died before anyone could dig him out.

exercised by the older boy to make the younger do what he likes, and what the younger one generally dislikes.”).

¹⁵ Sterner, *supra* note 9, at 4.

¹⁶ *Id.*

¹⁷ *Id.* One of the first jobs for the President of Harvard at that time was to punish a member of a literary society “for pinning the coattail of the boy who sat before him to the se[at].” *Id.*

¹⁸ See generally *id.* at 6 (explaining that as fraternities began to compete with one another for new students, they created rituals and myths of memberships as a way to compete for students' loyalty).

¹⁹ *Id.* at 6–7.

²⁰ See, e.g., THE AMERICAN HERITAGE COLLEGE DICTIONARY 1069 (4th ed. 2002) (defining pledge as “a person about to join a fraternity, sorority, or similar organization”); see also MERRIAM-WEBSTER'S COLLEGIATE DICTIONARY 952 (11th ed. 2009) (defining pledge as “a promise to join a fraternity, sorority, or secret society”); Katie Lambert, *How Sororities Work*, HOW STUFF WORKS, <http://people.howstuffworks.com/sorority3.htm> (last visited Nov. 23, 2015) (explaining a potential new member becomes a pledge once she accepts a bid from a sorority).

²¹ Sterner, *supra* note 9, at 7.

²² *Hazing Kills Freshman*, N.Y. TIMES, Sept. 13, 1912, <http://query.nytimes.com/mem/archive-free/pdf?res=F10B12F6395813738DDDAD0994D1405B828DF1D3>.

²³ Sterner, *supra* note 9, at 9.

²⁴ *Student Will Be Remembered*, THE LEDGER, Nov. 17, 1974, at 7B, available at <http://news.google.com/newspapers?nid=1346&dat=19741117&id=AI4sAAAAIABJ&sjid=APsDAAAAIABJ&pg=7285,5311820>; see also WRONGS OF PASSAGE, *supra* note 9, at 244 (listing school related deaths and the cause of each death from 1838 to the present day); Sterner, *supra* note 9, at 10.

²⁵ *Student Will Be Remembered*, *supra* note 24.

To date, there have been no confirmed reports of any sorority-related deaths due directly to hazing.²⁶ However, in 1970, Donna Bedinger was a sister of Alpha Gamma Delta at Eastern Illinois University when she died during a pledge sneak.²⁷ Pledges took Donna and another sister to a back road three miles away from school. As the pledges began to drive away, Donna jumped toward the car in an attempt to grab on to the bumper. However, she missed the bumper, hit her head on the pavement, and later died from her injuries. Donna's death was ruled an accident by the detectives investigating her death, so it was never labeled as a death caused by hazing.

In November 2012, members of Phi Kappa Alpha found David Bogenberger, a nineteen-year-old pledge, dead after a night of initiation hazing.²⁸ Bogenberger, along with eighteen other students, was pledging Phi Kappa Alpha at Northern Illinois University. The pledges had to drink vodka from four-ounce cups in each of the seven rooms inside the fraternity house within ninety minutes. The members of the fraternity heckled any pledge reluctant to drink and called them obscene names until they drank. After consuming three to five glasses of vodka and being given a bucket to vomit in, Bogenberger and many of the other pledges lost consciousness. The fraternity brothers put the unconscious pledges on makeshift beds to sleep it off. At about 11 p.m. that night, a fraternity officer ordered all fraternity brothers to delete any pictures or videos taken of the unconscious pledges that night. The next morning, members found Bogenberger dead, and it was later determined Bogenberger's blood alcohol content was 0.351.

One of the big issues surrounding hazing is the scope of who to hold accountable for hazing incidents. Thus far, national headquarters and universities have been able to convince state courts to relieve them of any responsibility and to hold liable only the individual engaging in the hazing activity. Depending on the circumstances, local chapters or officers of the organization who were present and organized the event also should bear liability. In *Yost v. Wabash College*, the Indiana Supreme Court declined to hold the college or national fraternity liable.²⁹ Brian Yost was pledging the Pi Kappa Psi fraternity at Wabash College. Yost suffered injuries during an incident at the fraternity house and filed suit against Wabash College, the fraternity he was pledging, its national organization, and a student fraternity member. The Indiana Supreme Court found that neither Wabash College nor the fraternity's national headquarters had assumed a duty to protect Yost, and no agency relationship existed between the college and the fraternity, or the national

²⁶ See generally Linea Austin, *Family sues sorority over death of AKA pledge*, THE FINAL CALL, Oct. 10, 2002, available at http://www.finalcall.com/artman/publish/National_News_2/family_sues_sorority_over_death.shtml (reporting that a student's death was not labeled as "hazing" because the university claimed it suspended the sorority that the student was pledging two years before this incident occurred and sisters of the sorority denied any wrongdoing); *The Hazing Reader*, *supra* note 5. Hank Nuwer created a list of school related deaths and the cause of each death from 1838 to the present day. *The Hazing Reader*, *supra*. Of all the deaths that were listed in relation to a sorority activity, none of the activities was charged as "hazing." *Id.* Instead, each death was labeled as either "non-hazing related" or ruled an accident. *Id.*

²⁷ U.C. BERKELEY Y.B., 79 (1996) (describing a pledge sneak as an activity in which a pledge class kidnaps active members of the organization and takes them to a hidden place); see also *The Hazing Reader*, *supra* note 5 (describing a pledge sneak as "events in which pledges kidnap members"); WRONGS OF PASSAGE, *supra* note 9, at 154.

²⁸ Jillian Duchnowski, *Lawsuit Includes New Details of Pledges Hazing Death*, DAILY CHRON. (Sept. 12, 2013), <http://www.daily-chronicle.com/mobile/article.xml/articles/2013/08/14/7c791d2e7c04471f91d559f349e85c21/index.xml>.

²⁹ *Yost v. Wabash College*, 3 N.E. 3d 509 (Ind. 2014).

headquarters and its local chapter. Therefore, the court found the college and national headquarters were not vicariously liable for Yost's injuries. The court remanded the case for the lower court to determine whether the local fraternity is liable.

B. Legislative Definitions of Hazing

Hazing remains a prevalent issue within fraternities and sororities on university campuses. A study conducted in 2007, "Hazing in View: College Students at Risk" ("Hazing in View"), found that more than half of the college students who are members of a club, athletic team, or organization experienced a hazing activity.³⁰ Seventy-three percent of the students involved in a Greek letter organization reported they experienced at least one hazing behavior.³¹ Yet, even with these high percentages, no common definition of what constitutes hazing has emerged.

Oxford dictionary defines hazing as (1) "the imposition of strenuous, often humiliating, tasks as part of a program of rigorous physical training and initiation" and (2) "humiliating and sometimes dangerous initiation rituals, especially as imposed on college students seeking membership to a fraternity or sorority."³² Despite the academic definition of hazing, state legislatures have each come up with their own definitions of hazing. The lack of consistency in these definitions, and the resulting lack of consistency in punishments, is exactly why federal legislation that defines hazing and its punishments need enactment.

In 1894, New York became the first state to enact an anti-hazing law.³³ The law stated it was "unlawful for any person or persons to engage in or aid or abet what is commonly called hazing, in or while attending any of the colleges, public schools or other institutions of learning in this state."³⁴ Since then, forty-four states have enacted anti-hazing laws.³⁵ However, even among these forty-four states, there is no common definition for what precise conduct constitutes hazing. In the study *Hazing in View*, nine out of ten students who reported experiencing what

³⁰ See Elizabeth J. Allan & Mary Madden, *Hazing in View: College Students at Risk* 14 (2008), http://umaine.edu/hazingresearch/files/2012/10/hazing_in_view_web1.pdf.

³¹ *Id.* at 16.

³² THE OXFORD DICTIONARY AND THESAURUS 674 (Am. ed. 1996); see also MERRIAM-WEBSTER'S COLLEGIATE DICTIONARY, *supra* note 20, at 572 (defining haze as "to harass by exacting unnecessary or disagreeable work; to harass by banter, ridicule, or criticism" and "to haze by way of initiation"); THE AMERICAN HERITAGE COLLEGE DICTIONARY, *supra* note 20, at 636 (defining haze as "to persecute or harass with meaningless, difficult, or humiliating tasks" and "to initiate, as into a college fraternity, by exacting humiliating performances from or playing rough practical jokes upon"); *Hazing Defined*, STOPHAZING.ORG (last visited Nov. 23, 2015), <http://www.stophazing.org/definition.html> (defining hazing as "any activity expected of someone joining a group (or to maintain full status in a group) that humiliates, degrades or risks emotional and/or physical harm, regardless of the person's willingness to participate.").

³³ *In re Khalil H.*, 80 A.D.3d 83, 85 (N.Y. App. Div. 2010) (citing *People ex rel. Taylor v. Forbes*, 143 N.Y. 219, 224 (1894)). On February 20, 1894, sophomores at Cornell University released chlorine gas into a banquet hall where the freshmen class was having its annual banquet. *Id.* As a result of this incident, some of the freshmen were injured, and one cook died. *Id.* One week later, Senator Henry J. Coggeshall proposed legislation that would criminalize hazing by college students and the bill was passed in 1894. *Id.*

³⁴ *In re Khalil H.*, 80 A.D.3d at 86 (quoting N.Y. PENAL LAW § 1030 (1894)) (current version at N.Y. PENAL LAW § 120.16, 120.17 (Consol. 2001)).

³⁵ See generally Appendix A.

the researchers identified as hazing behavior did not themselves view their experience as hazing. Instead, the students explained why they considered their personal experience something less.

The fact that some states charge hazing only as a misdemeanor further complicates efforts to try to define hazing.³⁶ Other states charge hazing as either a misdemeanor or a felony, depending on the severity of a hazing injury.³⁷ Some states do not charge hazing as a misdemeanor or a felony and instead instruct the educational institution to create and adopt a hazing policy defining prohibited behavior and the disciplinary measures for a violation of the policy.³⁸ Some states, as a condition to imposing criminal charges, may require that the hazing result in a fatality or in bodily harm.³⁹ Other states also consider the mental effects of hazing when imposing criminal charges.⁴⁰ Most states, however, treat hazing as a misdemeanor. The punishment for misdemeanors sometimes seems insufficient when compared to the severity of the offense. For example, the State of Virginia charged members of the Men of Honor Society with only misdemeanor hazing following the drowning deaths of two pledges.⁴¹ The members received one-year jail sentences and had to pay a \$2,500 fine.

³⁶ See Hayley Beitman, *Next Wave: Anti-Hazing Laws*, THE NEW BULLYING (Apr. 6, 2012), <http://news.jrn.msu.edu/bullying/2012/04/06/united-states-hazing-laws/> (recognizing that states have different definitions of hazing and there are different ways that states address violations of anti-hazing laws); Jacinda Boucher, *Hazing and Higher Education: State Laws, Liability, and Institutional Implications*, STOPHAZING.ORG (Nov. 18, 2014), http://www.stophazing.org/devtheory_files/devtheory7.htm (explaining most states charge hazing as a misdemeanor with a fine ranging anywhere between \$100 and \$5,000). See generally Appendix B.

³⁷ Appendix C.

³⁸ See Appendix D. See generally Eric Swedlund, *Senate panel kills anti-hazing legislation*, THE ARIZONA DAILY, http://wc.arizona.edu/papers/94/101/01_2_m.html (last visited Nov. 23, 2015). In February 2001, the Senate Education Committee voted down 7 to 1 a proposed bill that classified hazing as a felony. Swedlund, *supra*. The Committee stated that state government should allow schools to make their own hazing policies. *Id.* One committee member stated she was reluctant to vote for the bill because she did not want young people to be classified as criminals for the rest of their lives. *Id.*

³⁹ See ARK. CODE ANN. § 6-5-201(a) (West 2014); CAL. PENAL CODE § 245.6(b) (Deering 2014); GA. CODE ANN. § 16-5-61(a)(1) (West 2014); IDAHO CODE ANN. § 18-917(2)-(3) (West 2014); 720 ILL. COMP. STAT. ANN. 5/12C-50(a) (LexisNexis 2014); IOWA CODE ANN. § 708.10 (West 2014); KAN. STAT. ANN. § 21-5418 (2014); LA. REV. STAT. ANN. § 17:1801 (2014); MD. CODE ANN., CRIM. LAW § 3-607 (West 2014); MICH. COMP. LAWS ANN. § 750.411t(7)(b) (West 2014); MISS. CODE ANN. § 97-3-105(1) (West 2014); MISS. CODE ANN. § 97-3-105(3); NEV. REV. STAT. ANN. § 200.605(4) (West 2014); N.J. STAT. ANN. § 2C:40-3 (West 2014); N.Y. PENAL LAW § 120.16 (McKinney 2014); N.Y. PENAL LAW § 120.17; N.C. GEN. STAT. ANN. § 14-35 (West 2014); N.D. CENT. CODE ANN. § 12.1-17-10 (West 2014); OR. REV. STAT. ANN. § 163.197(4)(a) (West 2014); S.C. CODE ANN. § 59-101-200(A)(4) (2014); WIS. STAT. ANN. § 948.51 (2014).

⁴⁰ See ALA. CODE § 16-1-23(a) (2014); ARIZ. REV. STAT. ANN. § 15-2301(C)(2) (2014); DEL. CODE ANN. tit. 14, § 9302 (West 2014); FLA. STAT. ANN. § 1006.63(1) (West 2014); KY. REV. STAT. ANN. § 164.375(1) (West 2014); ME. REV. STAT. ANN. tit. 20-A, § 6553 (2014); MASS. GEN. LAWS ANN. ch. 269, § 17 (West 2014); MO. ANN. STAT. § 578.360(2) (West 2014); NEB. REV. STAT. ANN. § 28-311.06(1)(a) (West 2014); N.H. REV. STAT. ANN. § 631:7 (2014); OHIO REV. CODE ANN. § 2903.31(A) (West 2014); OKLA. STAT. tit. 21, § 1190(F)(1) (2014); 24 PA. CONS. STAT. ANN. § 5352 (West 2014); R.I. GEN. LAWS ANN. § 11-21-1(b) (West 2014); TENN. CODE ANN. § 49-7-123(a)(1) (West 2014); TEX. EDUC. CODE ANN. § 37.151(6) (West 2014); UTAH CODE ANN. § 76-5-107.5(1) (West 2014); VT. STAT. ANN. tit. 16, § 11(a)(30) (West 2014); WASH. REV. CODE ANN. § 28B.10.900 (West 2014); W. VA. CODE ANN. § 18-16-2 (West 2014); see also Beitman, *supra* note 36; *Definitions in Hazing*, *supra* note 12, at 4.

⁴¹ Mark Holmberg, *Hazing Expert Says Laws Must be Stiffened to Slow Down Deaths, Injuries*, WTVR (Apr. 26, 2013, 12:19 AM), <http://wtvr.com/2013/04/26/hazing-expert-says-laws-must-be>

II. EXISTING FEDERAL LEGISLATION RELATED TO HAZING

Aside from state's having different definitions and punishments for hazing, there is also a disparity among universities and among how they handle hazing incidents that occur on campus. Universities prefer to turn a blind eye to hazing because they want to avoid the public scrutiny that comes with being at the center of a major campus crime. To help avoid public scrutiny, some universities use the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act ("FERPA") as a shield to avoid reporting hazing incidents that occur among university students.

The FERPA was first enacted in 1974 and made binding on the states through the Spending Clause of Article I, Section 8 of the U.S. Constitution.⁴² This statute assured universities would keep educational records confidential, giving only parents the right to look at their child's education records.⁴³

The crime rate on university campuses began to increase in the 1980s.⁴⁴ In 1990, Congress passed the fourth amendment to FERPA entitled the Clery Act.⁴⁵ Congress enacted the Act in response to the rape and murder of nineteen-year-old Jeanne Clery at Lehigh University in Pennsylvania.⁴⁶ The law:

requires colleges and universities to disclose their security policies, keep a public crime log, publish an annual crime report[,] and provide timely warnings to students and campus employees about a crime posing an immediate or ongoing threat to students and campus employees. The law also ensures certain basic rights for victims of campus sexual assaults and requires the [United States] Department of Education to collect and disseminate campus crime statistics.⁴⁷

Despite this amendment, universities have sidestepped reporting incidents of hazing by claiming the privacy provisions of FERPA prohibit the universities from disclosing the incidents.⁴⁸

stiffened-to-slow-down-deaths-injuries/. Two students from Virginia State University drowned after attempting to cross a river as part of an initiation ceremony to become a member of the Men of Honor Society. *Id.*

⁴² U.S. CONST. art. I, § 8, cl. 1; Buckley Amendment, PUB. L. NO. 93-380, 88 Stat. 484 (1974) (current version at 20 U.S.C. § 1232g (2014)).

⁴³ *Legislative History of Major FERPA Provisions*, U.S. DEP'T OF EDUC., <http://www2.ed.gov/policy/gen/guid/fpco/ferpa/leg-history.html>.

⁴⁴ Susan J. Curry, *Hazing and the "Rush" Toward Reform: Responses from Universities, Fraternities, State Legislatures, and the Courts*, 16 J.C. & U.L. 93, 117 (1989); Ethan M. Rosenzweig, *Please Don't Tell: The Question of Confidentiality in Student Disciplinary Records under FERPA and the Crime Awareness and Campus Security Act*, 51 EMORY L.J. 447, 454 (2002).

⁴⁵ Student Right-To-Know and Campus Security Act, PUB. L. NO. 101-542, 104 Stat. 2381 (1990) (current version at 20 U.S.C. § 1092(f) (2013)); *see also* Rosenzweig, *supra* note 44, at 455 (quoting H.R. REP. NO. 101-518, at 7 (1990), *reprinted in* 1990 U.S.C.C.A.N. 3363, 3369) (explaining the Clery Act was enacted to "dispel the myth that crimes do not occur on [college] campuses"). The Act is now called the "Institutional and Financial Assistance Information for Students Act." 20 U.S.C. § 1092.

⁴⁶ CLERY CENTER FOR SECURITY ON CAMPUS, <http://clerycenter.org/our-history> (last visited Nov. 23, 2015).

⁴⁷ *Id.*

⁴⁸ *See* Jamie Ball, *This Will Go Down on Your Permanent Record (But We'll Never Tell): How the Federal Educational Rights and Privacy Act May Help Colleges and Universities Keep Hazing a Secret*, 33

Universities are able to use FERPA as protection by claiming an incident was neither violent nor sex related. Consequently, these incidents did not fall within the reporting parameters of the Clery Act, and the university could address the incident confidentially through its in-house judicial process.⁴⁹ This allowed a university to make the hazing incident a part of a student's educational record. Universities take the position that educational records include a student's disciplinary record. The university would then not report the incident under the justification that it risked losing its federal aid if it disclosed a student's educational record in violation of FERPA.⁵⁰

After much debate on what constitutes an educational record, Congress amended FERPA again in 1998.⁵¹ The amendment provided that nothing prohibited a university from releasing the final results regarding a student disciplinary action that concerned a violent crime or non-forcible sex offense.⁵² However, before a university released a student's disciplinary record, it had to comply with four requirements: (1) the information from the disciplinary proceedings must have been the final result;⁵³ (2) the student whose records were sought to be released must have committed a violent crime or a non-forcible sex crime; (3) through the disciplinary proceeding, the university must have determined the student actually committed the act; and (4) the violent crime or non-forcible sex offense must have been in violation of the university's rules.⁵⁴

The 1998 amendment has done little to force universities to disclose disciplinary proceeding records because the amendment still allows a university to use its discretion to decide whether the incident falls within those subject to mandatory reporting under the Clery Act and whether the university must disclose the records. Faced with that decision, universities have a strong incentive to opt not to disclose the reports in order to maintain their reputation as a safe campus.⁵⁵ Supporters of disclosure of the final results from disciplinary proceedings accuse universities of using FERPA as a way to shield the crime rates on their campuses, including hazing crimes. The supporters believe universities try to shield crime rates on their campuses to avoid losing their appeal to incoming students or financial benefactors.⁵⁶

SW. U. L. REV. 477, 478 (2004). *See generally* 20 U.S.C. § 1232g(b). The statute states that any institution of higher education that discloses educational records to a third party without that student's consent will not receive any funds. 20 U.S.C. § 1232g(b).

⁴⁹ Ball, *supra* note 48.

⁵⁰ Ball, *supra* note 48; *see also* 20 U.S.C. § 1232g(a)(4)(A) (defining an educational record as files, documents, and other materials containing information directly related to the student and are maintained by the institution, or an agent of the institution).

⁵¹ Benjamin F. Sidbury, *The Disclosure of Campus Crime: How Colleges and Universities Continue to Hide Behind the 1998 Amendment to FERPA and How Congress Can Eliminate the Loophole*, 26 J.C. & U.L. 755, 765 (1999–2000).

⁵² *Volume 1: Data Collection Guidelines*, DEP'T OF JUSTICE 34 (2000), <http://www2.fbi.gov/ucr/nibrs/manuals/v1all.pdf> (defining nonforcible sex offense as “[u]nlawful, nonforcible sexual intercourse,” including incest and statutory rape); Sidbury, *supra* note 51, at 765; *see* 20 U.S.C. § 1232g (b)(6)(B) (2013).

⁵³ 20 U.S.C. § 1232g (b)(6)(C). Final Results include “the name of the student, the violation committed, and any sanction imposed by the institution on that student.” *Id.*

⁵⁴ 20 U.S.C. § 1232g (b)(6)(B); Sidbury, *supra* note 51, at 766.

⁵⁵ *Id.* at 767; *see* Maureen P. Rada, *The Buckley Conspiracy: How Congress Authorized the Cover-Up of Campus Crime and How It Can Be Undone*, 59 OHIO ST. L.J. 1799, 1802 (1998).

⁵⁶ Rosenzweig, *supra* note 44. *See generally* Ball, *supra* note 48 (explaining that providing misinformation about crime statistics on university campuses can be especially dangerous for incoming

By their nature, Greek organizations are very secretive. The loyalty demanded by keeping secrets, such as hazing practices, strongly appeals to many young people's desire to be accepted. Consequently, very few victims or witnesses are willing to come forward about hazing. Victims also may be hesitant about coming forward, because they do not want a "victim" label. The study, "Hazing in View," reported that even when a hazing activity occurs, it still goes unreported about ninety-five percent of the time.⁵⁷ The lack of reporting hazing incidents coupled with universities using FERPA as a shield not to disclose results from disciplinary proceedings arising from hazing incidents make the chances of criminal prosecution for hazing crimes very small.⁵⁸

III. EFFORTS TO ENACT FEDERAL HAZING REGULATION

There is some interest in the community to provide guidance to Greek letter organizations on issues such as hazing. Groups such as the Association of Fraternity Advisors and the Fraternal Government Relations Coalition are two such advisory groups.⁵⁹ These groups provide information to fraternities and sororities relating to hazing, and they compile lists of hazing related resources such as books, speakers, and programs. However, these advisors do not take proactive roles in helping to design federal anti-hazing legislation.

In 2003, Diane Watson, a U.S. Representative from California, proposed an amendment to section 484 of the Higher Education Act of 1965.⁶⁰ Section 484 addresses a student's eligibility for financial aid. Watson's amendment, H.R. 1207, also known as the Hazing Prohibition Act of 2003, proposed adding a new subsection "(s)" that would suspend a student's eligibility for financial aid if the student is sanctioned for hazing offenses, similar to the way subsection "(r)" suspends eligibility for drug related offenses.⁶¹ The amendment proposed that students "subjected to an official sanction for hazing" would not be eligible to receive any type of financial aid for up to one year after a sanction.⁶² The amendment defined hazing broadly so its interpretation could encompass almost any type of situation that some might consider physically or emotionally coercive while participating in an activity a student organization sponsored.⁶³ A student

students attracted to joining a Greek-lettered organization because they may not realize the possible consequences).

⁵⁷ Allan & Madden, *supra* note 30, at 2.

⁵⁸ Sidbury, *supra* note 51, at 767; *see* Rada, *supra* note 55.

⁵⁹ ASSOCIATION OF FRATERNITY/SORORITY ADVISORS, <http://www.afa1976.org/> (last visited Nov. 23, 2015); FRATERNAL GOVERNMENT RELATIONS COALITION, <http://www.fgrc.com/> (last visited Nov. 23, 2015).

⁶⁰ 20 U.S.C. § 1091 (2014); Blake Seitz, *Hazing Hallucinations*, NATIONAL REVIEW ONLINE (Aug. 7, 2013), <http://www.nationalreview.com/article/355222/hazing-hallucinations-blake-seitz>.

⁶¹ 20 U.S.C. § 1091(r).

⁶² H.R. 1207; *see also* Brian Perry, *The Clery Act, in HAZING ON CAMPUS* 26, 28 (Association of Fraternity Advisors, Issues in Focus, 2005), *available at* http://web.centre.edu/schutts/Hazing_on_Campus.pdf.

⁶³ *See* H.R. 1207. *See generally* Seitz, *supra* note 60 (suggesting that under H.R. 1207, everyone would be guilty of hazing at some point because the bill describes hazing as encompassing anything ranging from cruelty to just doing something to make someone like you). H.R. 1207 defines hazing as [A]ny assumption of authority by a student whereby another student suffers or is exposed to any cruelty, intimidation, humiliation, embarrassment, hardship, or oppression, or is required to perform exercises to excess, to become sleep deprived, to commit dangerous activities, to curry favor from those in power, to submit to physical assaults, to consume offensive foods or alcohol, or the threat of bodily harm or death, or the deprivation or abridgement of any right.

sanctioned for hazing could lose financial aid, even if no one charged him or her with criminal hazing. The amendment required only that a university issue the official sanction, and that was sufficient to effectuate the suspension of aid. However, Watson's Bill died in committee, so it never came before the legislative body.⁶⁴

The next public discussions regarding anti-hazing federal regulations did not occur until 2011, after the death of Robert Champion. Champion was a student at Florida Agricultural and Mechanical University ("FAMU").⁶⁵ Though not pledging a fraternity, Champion died because of injuries he sustained from a hazing activity during a marching band trip.⁶⁶ In response to Champion's death, Frederica Wilson, a U.S. Representative from Florida, vowed to propose a federal anti-hazing bill. In September 2012, Wilson held a news conference to offer her plan for new initiatives to end hazing.⁶⁷ Standing alongside Wilson was Robert Champion's mother and Lianne Kowiak, the mother of another boy who, in 2008, died from hazing while pledging a fraternity.⁶⁸ Wilson wanted a national law against hazing enacted because she believed states did not adequately prosecute hazing crimes, and victims and witnesses were not encouraged to come forward under the existing state laws.

Wilson's legislative initiative was similar to Watson's 2003 proposal in that it sought to deny financial aid to students found guilty of hazing. However, Wilson's bill proposed to deny financial aid to students criminally convicted of hazing under a state statute⁶⁹ and to apply sanctions to students who witnessed a hazing incident but did not report it.⁷⁰ Wilson also proposed establishing an "Advisory Committee on Hazing Prevention and Elimination" within the United States Department of Justice and restricting federal transportation funds to states that

H.R. 1207.

⁶⁴ See H.R. 1207.

⁶⁵ See Glovin, *supra* note 7.

⁶⁶ John Schwartz, *Drum Major's Death Ruled Hazing Homicide*, N.Y. TIMES, Dec. 17, 2011, <http://www.nytimes.com/2011/12/17/us/drum-major-robert-champions-death-ruled-hazing-homicide.html>. Robert Champion, a member of the FAMU marching band, collapsed on a bus while in Orlando for a football game. *Id.* He died from multiple blunt force trauma to his body associated with a hazing activity. *Id.*

⁶⁷ *Congresswoman Wilson Meets with National and International Presidents of Greek Organizations on Capitol Hill to Discuss Ways to Combat Hazing and to Discuss Her Anti-Hazing Legislation*, CONGRESSWOMAN FEDERICA WILSON (Sept. 18, 2012), <http://wilson.house.gov/media-center/press-releases/congresswoman-wilson-meets-with-national-and-international-presidents-of> [hereinafter *Capitol Hill*]; see also Glovin, *supra* note 7.

⁶⁸ *Capitol Hill*, *supra* note 67; see also Glovin, *supra* note 7; Rebecca Catalanello, *Lawsuit: Fraternity hazing killed former Wharton golf standout*, TAMPA BAY TIMES, July 31, 2009, <http://www.tampabay.com/news/publicsafety/lawsuit-fraternity-hazing-killed-former-wharton-golf-standout/1023803>. Harrison Kowiak and another boy pledging Theta Chi Fraternity at Lenoir-Rhyne University were brought to a field and told they had to get the "sacred fraternity rocks." Catalanello, *supra*. While attempting to retrieve the rocks, brothers of the fraternity dressed in black would push and tackle the boys. *Id.* Kowiak was brought to the hospital after he could no longer stand up on his own and began to suffer seizures. *Id.* Kowiak died the following day from blunt force trauma to his head. *Id.*

⁶⁹ See Tyler Kingkade, *FratPAC Lobbies Congress For Tax Breaks, To Stop Anti-Hazing Law*, HUFF POST COLLEGE, July 25, 2013, http://www.huffingtonpost.com/2013/07/25/fratpac-fraternity-lobby_n_3653692.html.

⁷⁰ Dr. Gentry McCreary, *FratPAC and Hazing at the Federal Level*, DOCTOR GENTRY'S BLOG (Aug. 6, 2013, 7:04 AM), <http://doctorgentry.blogspot.com/> [hereinafter *FratPAC*].

do not, or fail to, enact a felony criminal hazing statute.⁷¹ Wilson promised a number of times that she would introduce her anti-hazing proposal to Congress; however, as of this writing, she has yet to do so.⁷²

Many surmise that Wilson did not follow through with introducing her bill because of lobby efforts against the bill. One group that has been influential in halting proposals for federal anti-hazing legislation is the Fraternity and Sorority Political Action Committee (“FSPAC”). Formed in March 2005, the FSPAC states its purpose is to allow “Greeks to work together to visibly support our brothers and sisters in Congress and those who champion Greek issues.”⁷³ After Wilson announced her plan to propose an anti-hazing bill, the FSPAC contacted Wilson. FSPAC then reported to news outlets, such as Bloomberg, that it explained to Wilson why her proposed federal anti-hazing bill was not appropriate and why states should be responsible for enacting anti-hazing legislation.⁷⁴ Although the Fraternal Government Relations Coalition (“FGRC”), the parent organization of the FSPAC, stated it would “support ‘well-crafted’ federal anti-hazing legislation,” neither FGRC nor FSPAC has offered suggestions for what it believes is “well-crafted” legislation.⁷⁵

In January 2014, Alan Grayson, a United States representative from Florida, introduced a bill that proposed any student convicted under a state hazing law would not qualify for federal loans or grants.⁷⁶ The Subcommittee on Higher Education and Workforce Training considered

⁷¹ *Congresswoman Wilson Announces Framework for Anti-Hazing Legislation*, CONGRESSWOMAN FEDERICA WILSON (May 31, 2012), <http://wilson.house.gov/media-center/press-releases/congresswoman-wilson-announces-framework-for-anti-hazing-legislation> [hereinafter *Framework for Anti-Hazing Legislation*]. See generally Deborah L. Cohen, *Clearing Up Hazing: Opponents Are Pushing for Stricter Laws*, ABA JOURNAL, (Oct. 1, 2012), http://www.abajournal.com/magazine/article/clearing_up_hazing_opponents_are_pushing_for_stricter_laws/ (stating that the Advisory Committee proposed by Wilson would consist of “the attorney general, the secretary of education, the secretary of health and human services, and other officials of federal agencies”).

⁷² See Glovin, *supra* note 7. Wilson first declared that she would be proposing an anti-hazing federal regulation in January 2012. *Id.* When she missed this deadline, she promised to have a bill proposed by the following May, and then again in September. *Id.* Lianne Kowiak and others have attempted to contact Wilson to find out when a bill will be proposed, but none of their phone calls have been returned. *Id.*

⁷³ *About Us*, FRATERNITY AND SORORITY POLITICAL ACTION COMMITTEE, <http://www.fspac.org/about/> (last visited Nov. 23, 2015).

⁷⁴ *FSPAC Response to Biased Bloomberg Coverage of Our Work in Washington*, FRATERNITY AND SORORITY POLITICAL ACTION COMMITTEE, http://www.fspac.org/news/fspac_response/ (last visited Nov. 23, 2015) [hereinafter *FSPAC Response*]; Glovin, *supra* note 7. The FSPAC believes there are important hurdles that need to be overcome before a passable anti-hazing legislation can be proposed. *FSPAC Response, supra*. However, FSPAC never states what these hurdles may be, nor does it offer guidance for overcoming these hurdles. *Id.* Wilson claims “fraternities didn’t block [her bill]” and she was holding off on proposing her bill because there were “hiccups” related to her proposal’s penalties. Glovin, *supra*. She also claims she will propose her solution after the Champion case is resolved. *Id.* Some political reports insinuate there is no coincidence between Wilson’s decision to delay submission of her proposed legislation to committee and her decision in April 2012 to become a co-sponsor of the FSPAC’s bill giving fraternities a tax break to renovate Greek housing. *Id.*

⁷⁵ See *FratPAC, supra* note 70.

⁷⁶ To prohibit students who have been convicted of a criminal hazing offense under State law from receiving assistance under title IV of the Higher Education Act of 1965, H.R. 3898, 113th Cong. (2014); David Glovin & John Hechinger, *Fraternities Back Proposal Denying Federal Aid to Student*

this bill in June 2014, but ultimately the bill did not become law during the 113th Congress.⁷⁷ Although both Grayson's and Wilson's bills seek to deny financial aid to students found to be hazing, the bills differ in one important way. While Wilson's bill denies financial aid to students disciplined by their universities, Grayson's bill denies aid only to students convicted of hazing in state court under that state's hazing law. Organizations, such as FratPAC, National Panhellenic Conference, and North-American Interfraternity Conference are willing to support Grayson's bill over Wilson's bill because Grayson's bill ties loss of financial aid to a criminal conviction. The problem with this legislation is that it still leaves it up to the states to define hazing.⁷⁸ Therefore, a student who loses financial aid in one state may not have lost his or her financial aid if he or she attended a university in another state that has a different definition of hazing.

Federal legislation tying hazing and financial aid has other strong opponents besides FSPAC. FAMU expressed to Wilson its opinion that federal legislation "would unfairly target minority students, who rely more heavily on financial aid."⁷⁹ The National Association for Equal Opportunity in Higher Education ("NAFEO"), which represents colleges that are predominantly Black, told Wilson it felt the penalties in her proposal were harsher than penalties for other types of crimes.⁸⁰ Walter Kimbrough, President of Dillard University, also opposes federal regulation and says he believes hazing "help[s] newcomers earn their place in a certain group" and is "an important step on the road to developing identity."⁸¹

Many opponents to federal anti-hazing legislation believe universities are better equipped to regulate the Greek organizations on their own campuses. However, this approach requires trusting the same students who devise the various hazing rituals to bring a hazing incident to the university's attention. Self-regulation is a slow road to resolving hazing issues. Since 2009, nine deaths related to hazing occurred at events Sigma Alpha Epsilon ("SAE"), one of the nation's largest and oldest fraternities, sponsored. This is more than at any other fraternity.⁸² It took five years and nine deaths before SAE finally announced it was removing its new member program completely.⁸³ SAE's decision to remove its new member program comes after numerous reports of hazing rituals that led to a number of universities closing SAE chapters on their campuses.⁸⁴ Having universities self-administer discipline for hazing incidents has other drawbacks. Universities have a self-serving interest in making sure their reputation and federal funding remain intact. Attracting future students with its good reputation and the availability of financial

Hazers, BLOOMBERG (February 7, 2014), <http://www.bloomberg.com/news/2014-02-07/fraternities-back-proposal-denying-federal-aid-to-student-hazers.html>.

⁷⁷ H.R. 3898.

⁷⁸ See generally H.R. 3898 (proposing that a student convicted under a state's hazing law be ineligible to receive federal aid, but does not define hazing).

⁷⁹ Glovin, *supra* note 7.

⁸⁰ Glovin, *supra* note 7; NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR EQUAL OPPORTUNITY IN HIGHER EDUCATION, <http://www.nafeo.org/community/index.php> (last visited Nov. 23, 2015).

⁸¹ Kimbrough, *supra* note 9.

⁸² David Glovin & John Hechinger, *Deadliest Frat's Icy 'Torture of Pledges Evokes Tarantino Films*, BLOOMBERG (December 30, 2013), <http://www.bloomberg.com/news/2013-12-30/deadliest-frat-s-icy-torture-of-pledges-evokes-tarantino-films.html>.

⁸³ *Sigma Alpha Epsilon Announces Historic Change for Membership Experience*, SIGMA ALPHA EPSILON, <https://www.sae.net/home/pages/news/news---news-from-hq---historic-change-on-founders-day> (last visited Nov. 23, 2015).

⁸⁴ *Id.*

aid is fundamental to the university's survival. Reporting hazing incidents does not serve the universities' efforts to maintain its standing among prospective applicants.

IV. A FEDERAL SOLUTION

As hazing injuries and hazing deaths continue to dominate the news, individual states and universities have been ineffective in controlling hazing. In the face of this continuing epidemic that impacts students, families, schools, and communities. Congress has a responsibility to take charge of addressing the hazing problem. Congress needs to enact a uniform definition for hazing, and provide proportional punishments that acknowledge the severity of the crime and serve as a deterrent to future hazing. To be effective, such a law must (1) set forth a uniform definition for hazing, which should address physical and psychological hazing activities; (2) establish who may be found liable for a hazing incident; (3) define the level of the offense as either misdemeanor or felony, and establish the punishment for each level of offense; (4) set up a national advisory committee, and (5) require universities to report hazing incidents to a national database.

Despite the arguments against federal legislation for hazing, there are ways to fashion a suitable legislative response to criminal hazing.⁸⁵ A comprehensive federal statute addressing hazing would be the most effective way to handle the issue. Under Amendment 10 to the United States Constitution, the states retain the policing power.⁸⁶ However, Congress can enact legislation that requires the states to follow federal mandates on hazing definitions and punishments.⁸⁷ In *South Dakota v. Dole*, the Supreme Court held that encouraging state action was a "valid use of the spending power."⁸⁸ The Court in *Dole* noted that if the state did not want to implement a law, it could refuse the highway funds the federal government offered.⁸⁹ Congress should restrict education funding for any state that fails to enact the federal hazing law.⁹⁰ By reducing education funds for states that choose not to enact a law consistent with the federal hazing law, Congress would be encouraging states, not coercing them.⁹¹

The arguments opponents of federal legislation for hazing raise now are the same arguments that opponents of federal legislation that tied financial aid restrictions to certain criminal

⁸⁵ See generally 20 U.S.C.A. § 1091(r) (West 2013). A person found convicted of a drug related offense will lose any type of financial aid for one to two years or indefinitely. *Id.* How long a person will lose his or her financial aid depends on if this is the person's first offense or not. *Id.* It also depends on whether the charge is for drug possession or selling. *Id.*

⁸⁶ U.S. CONST. amend. X.

⁸⁷ See generally 42 U.S.C. §§ 651– 665 (2014) (mandating states to (1) require employers to withhold child support from pay checks; (2) provide for liens and other punishments such as suspension of driver's licenses against defaulting child support obligors; and (3) intercept income tax refunds for past due support).

⁸⁸ *South Dakota v. Dole*, 483 U.S. 203, 212 (1987).

⁸⁹ *Dole*, 483 U.S. at 211. The Court found this law was not coercive because if South Dakota opted not to implement a law making the minimum drinking age twenty-one, it would lose only five percent of its transportation funds. *Id.*

⁹⁰ See *Framework for Anti-Hazing Legislation*, *supra* note 71.

⁹¹ See *id.*

convictions raised.⁹² The Higher Education Act of 1965 places restrictions on the availability of financial aid to persons convicted of drug offenses⁹³ and forcible and non-forcible sex offenses.⁹⁴ Congress can amend the Higher Education Act of 1965 to provide that students attending institutions of higher education would be subject to student financial aid restriction if they receive a conviction of hazing.⁹⁵ Students convicted of hazing resulting in death or serious bodily injury to another should be restricted from receiving any type of federally funded financial aid indefinitely.⁹⁶ Convictions for lesser offenses should result in loss or a suspension of the right to receive any type of federally funded financial aid for a defined period, for example, one year from the date of conviction.⁹⁷

Congress should mandate that for a university to receive any type of federal financing, the university must implement an anti-hazing education program that the university will present during orientation for incoming and transfer students.⁹⁸ Congress also should mandate that universities implement a program through mental health services to provide group or individual counseling for students who receive a conviction of hazing.⁹⁹ Similar to FERPA, Congress can apply this law to any state receiving funds from any federal funding.¹⁰⁰ In turn, Congress can require the states enact and enforce the law at the risk of universities within the state's jurisdiction also losing federal funding.

The first step is to define hazing and to require states to implement this uniform definition. A "well-crafted" federal anti-hazing law is achievable. An example is the hazing Legislation Congress recently adopted for the Uniform Code of Military Justice.¹⁰¹ This law requires each military department to report hazing incidents including the department's definition of hazing, a discussion of its policies, and a description of the methods taken to track and report hazing incidents. The Army also has implemented regulations that more specifically define hazing.¹⁰² These definitions the military adopted as part of its code of conduct provide

⁹² See generally Students, ACLU Sue To Overturn Higher Education Loan Ban, COMMON SENSE FOR DRUG POLICY, <http://www.csdp.org/news/news/heareform.htm> (last visited Nov. 23, 2015) (quoting an attorney that said the law "singles out working-class Americans").

⁹³ *Id.*

⁹⁴ 20 U.S.C.A. § 1070a(b)(6) (West 2013).

⁹⁵ See generally 20 U.S.C.A. § 1091(r) (mandating that financial aid could be restricted for persons convicted of drug related offenses); 20 U.S.C.A. § 1070a(b)(6) (mandating that persons convicted of forcible or nonforcible sex offenses lose their Federal Pell Grant indefinitely).

⁹⁶ See generally 20 U.S.C.A. § 1070a(b)(6) (finding persons convicted of a sex offense ineligible to ever receive a Federal Pell Grant).

⁹⁷ See generally 20 U.S.C.A. § 1091(r) (finding persons convicted of drug related offenses ineligible to receive financial aid for a defined period of time).

⁹⁸ See 20 U.S.C.A. § 1011i(a) (West 2013).

⁹⁹ See 20 U.S.C.A. § 1161w(a)(2) (West 2013).

¹⁰⁰ See *Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA)*, U.S. DEP'T OF EDUC., <http://www2.ed.gov/policy/gen/guid/fpco/ferpa/index.html>.

¹⁰¹ National Defense Authorization Act for Fiscal Year 2013, Pub. L. No. 112-239, 126 Stat. 1632 (2013); see also 10 U.S. C. § 6964 (2013) (defining hazing as "any unauthorized assumption of authority by a midshipman whereby another midshipman suffers or is exposed to any cruelty, indignity, humiliation, hardship, or oppression, or the deprivation or abridgement of any right.").

¹⁰² U.S. DEP'T OF ARMY, REG. 600-20, ARMY COMMAND POL'Y para. 4-19 (6 Nov. 2014), available at http://www.apd.army.mil/pdffiles/r600_20.pdf. The Army Command Policy defines hazing as "any conduct whereby a Servicemember or members regardless of service, rank, or position, and without

examples of what to incorporate into a comprehensive and specific definition of hazing. This definition can apply not only to fraternities and sororities but also to other school organizations such as athletic teams and clubs. A definition for hazing could be the following: any conduct, with or without the consent of the individual(s) involved, that recklessly, intentionally, or unintentionally endangers the mental or physical well-being of that individual(s) by causing that individual(s) to be exposed to any activity that is cruel, abusive, humiliating, oppressive, demeaning, or harmful.¹⁰³ Furthermore, Congress can look to guidelines of organizations, such as the Multicultural Greek Letter Council, to help determine what specific acts constitute hazing.¹⁰⁴ This definition is broad enough to encompass all ritualistic, harassing, and abusive activities typically engaged in during the pledging process of Greek organizations.

Second, to assure uniform regulation of hazing across all states, Congress should require that each state enact a law that incorporates the federal definition of hazing put forth by Congress.¹⁰⁵ The definition should include not only what hazing is but also who is liable. Thus far, state courts have declined to hold national fraternity and sorority organizations and universities liable for the hazing activities of local fraternity and sorority chapters, on findings that these entities never assumed a duty to the person injured or killed.¹⁰⁶ However, arguably, these entities do take steps to oversee activities engaged in by fraternities and sororities, and, therefore, do have an idea of what is going on within the organization.¹⁰⁷ Congress should look to the relationship between the local chapters, the universities, and the national headquarters to determine certain standards for when organizations have criminal liability for hazing offenses.¹⁰⁸ For example, the Center for Campus Life at Texas Tech University posted the University's hazing law, which states "[c]harges can be filed not only against the student organization but against the president, the advisor, other individuals associated with the incident, the inter/national affiliate if there is such, as well as the University."¹⁰⁹ Some opponents to expanding liability past the local

proper authority, recklessly or intentionally causes a Servicemember to suffer or be exposed to any activity that is cruel, abusive, humiliating, oppressive, demeaning, or harmful." *Id.* The policy lists activities that are considered hazing, as well as activities that are not considered hazing "[w]hen authorized by the chain of command and/or operationally required." *Id.* The policy also states the scope of hazing and does not allow consent as a defense to a charge of hazing. *Id.*

¹⁰³ See *id.*; *What is Hazing?*, U. OF MICH., <http://deanofstudents.umich.edu/article/what-hazing>.

¹⁰⁴ See *Fraternity and Sorority Advisory Council Anti-Hazing Sub-Committee Guidelines*, CORNELL UNIV. (Apr. 2004), <http://cornellmgc.com/hazing-prevention> (labeling activities that may occur during initiation processes as either "acceptable" or "unacceptable").

¹⁰⁵ See H.R. 1207.

¹⁰⁶ See *Yost*, 3 N.E. 3d 509.

¹⁰⁷ See *Greek Social Policy*, W. VA. UNIV., available at <http://studentactivities.wvu.edu/r/download/198026> (establishing policies Greek organizations must follow when engaging in on-campus or off-campus events such as registering an event with the school by filling out a form); *Chapter Advisors*, SIGMA NU FRATERNITY, INC., available at https://www.sigmanu.org/documents/chapter_advisor_role.pdf (stating a chapter advisor serves as a liaison between the local chapter and national headquarters).

¹⁰⁸ See *infra* note 100 and accompanying text. See generally Isabel Mascarenas, Florida's anti-hazing law among toughest nationwide, 10 NEWS (May 3, 2021 7:06 PM), <http://www.wtsp.com/news/local/story.aspx?storyid=253824> (reporting that Florida has one of the strictest anti-hazing laws in the nation).

¹⁰⁹ *Hazing Law and FAQ*, CENTER FOR CAMPUS LIFE, <http://www.depts.ttu.edu/centerforcampuslife/downloads/HazingLaw.pdf>.

level may argue that holding the national headquarters responsible for the criminal acts of its local chapters will have a chilling effect on headquarters' role in educating members against liability because headquarters will not want to be locally involved.¹¹⁰ Congress's enactment of a law that requires states to hold both the individual and the Greek organization liable will give organizations an incentive to monitor more closely their members.¹¹¹

The third step is to set forth the punishment for those found guilty of hazing. Hazing misdemeanors and felonies should include not only physical harm but also psychological harm. Felony convictions should apply to students found guilty of the most egregious hazing incidents, such as those resulting in death or serious bodily injury to another. Convictions for lesser offenses may result in the lesser punishments applicable to misdemeanors. The federal mandate should require States to adopt the punishment levels that Congress defines for offenses, including monetary fines and incarceration for those convicted of hazing.¹¹² The definition also should provide that a victim's voluntary participation in the activity is not a defense to hazing.¹¹³

Just like Congress amended the Higher Education Act of 1965 to restrict the availability of financial aid to persons convicted of drug offenses¹¹⁴ and forcible and non-forcible sex offenses,¹¹⁵ this anti-hazing legislation should also restrict financial aid to persons found guilty of hazing.¹¹⁶ Students convicted of a felony should be restricted from receiving any type of federally funded financial aid indefinitely.¹¹⁷ Convictions for lesser offenses should result in loss or a suspension of the right to receive any type of federally funded financial aid for a defined period, for example, one year from the date of conviction.¹¹⁸

The fourth step is to set up an advisory committee. This advisory committee would have a number of responsibilities. One responsibility would be to require a university receiving any type

¹¹⁰ Tim Evans, *National fraternity groups excused from hazing lawsuits*, INDYSTAR (June 17, 2014, 5:14 PM), <http://www.indystar.com/story/news/education/2014/06/17/national-fraternity-groups-excused-hazing-lawsuits/10697223/>.

¹¹¹ See Ibram H. Rogers, *Commentary: The End of Hazing*, DIVERSE ISSUES IN HIGHER EDUCATION, Jan. 3, 2012, <http://diverseeducation.com/article/16735/#>. Greek letter organization claim to be brotherhoods and sisterhoods, so they should be treated like that in the law. *Id.* Therefore, holding an entire chapter liable for any hazing incident will create an internal system of checks and balances. *Id.* An internal checks and balances system will be more effective than requiring external checks and balances because members follow a code of secrecy that keeps them from reporting incidents. *Id.*

¹¹² See generally 18 U.S.C.A. § 3553(a) (West 2013) (identifying factors that a court can consider when determining what sentence to impose); 18 U.S.C.A. § 3572(a) (West 2013) (including factors that a court should consider when determining the amount of fine to be imposed).

¹¹³ See generally Lindsay E. Raber, *In Light of Varying State Anti-Hazing Laws, Is the "Halting Hazing Act of 2012" the Solution?*, MAYA/MURPHY ATTORNEYS AT LAW (OCT. 1, 2012), <http://www.mayalaw.com/in-light-of-varying-state-anti-hazing-laws-is-the-halting-hazing-act-of-2012-the-solution/> (stating that in Connecticut, a defendant cannot claim that a victim voluntarily participated in a hazing activity as a defense).

¹¹⁴ See 20 U.S.C.A. § 1091(r).

¹¹⁵ 20 U.S.C.A. § 1070a(b)(6) (West 2013).

¹¹⁶ See generally 20 U.S.C.A. § 1091(r) (mandating that financial aid could be restricted for persons convicted of drug related offenses); 20 U.S.C.A. § 1070a(b)(6) (mandating that persons convicted of forcible or nonforcible sex offenses lose their Federal Pell Grant indefinitely).

¹¹⁷ See generally 20 U.S.C.A. § 1070a(b)(6) (finding persons convicted of a sex offense ineligible to ever receive a Federal Pell Grant).

¹¹⁸ See generally 20 U.S.C.A. § 1091(r) (finding persons convicted of drug related offenses ineligible to receive financial aid for a defined period of time).

of federal funding to implement an anti-hazing education program that the university will present during orientation for incoming and transfer students.¹¹⁹ The committee would study the programs and prevention policies implemented at institutions of higher education, observe and analyze state laws on hazing, and evaluate the effectiveness of hazing education programs and of penalties imposed for hazing offenses.¹²⁰ The committee also would oversee compliance with congressional legislation that requires universities to provide group or individual counseling for students convicted of hazing.¹²¹ Each state should delegate one person who will report statistics for that state related to the occurrence and prosecution of hazing to the committee.¹²² The committee then would report criminal hazing statistics to the U.S. Department of Justice and report educational statistics to the U.S. Department of Education.

The final step in federal hazing legislation would be to require universities to report incidents of hazing to a national database.¹²³ Congress should amend the Clery Act to specifically include hazing as a required reporting category.¹²⁴ Congress could use restrictions on federal funding as a way to compel universities to comply with reporting requirements. This restriction would motivate universities to be more open with reporting and more proactive with responding to hazing incidents.¹²⁵ This database should include reporting the number of hazing allegations, the number of substantiated hazing cases, and the penalties imposed upon the perpetrators, using the definition of hazing established by Congress.¹²⁶

¹¹⁹ See 20 U.S.C.A. § 1011i(a) (West 2013).

¹²⁰ See 20 U.S.C.A. § 1011i(a); The Harry Lew Military Hazing Accountability and Prevention Act of 2012, U.S. CONGRESSWOMAN JUDY CHU (Dec. 20, 2012), <http://chu.house.gov/issue/military-hazing> [hereinafter JUDY CHU] (proposing a study be conducted evaluating the military's prevention and training policies); *Definitions in Hazing*, *supra* note 12, at 4 (determining that, based on the results of the author's own study, it would be helpful to examine the amount and impact of anti-hazing educational programs provided in student organizations).

¹²¹ See 20 U.S.C.A. § 1161w(a)(2) (West 2013).

¹²² See *generally* COMM. ON WAYS AND MEANS, SECTION 8-CHILD SUPPORT ENFORCEMENT PROGRAM (Comm. Print 2003). The Committee on Ways and Means required uniform application of child support guidelines throughout a state and reporting and review requirements. *Id.* at 7.

¹²³ 20 U.S.C. § 1092(f). See *generally* JUDY CHU, *supra* note 120 (proposing a national database that tracks hazing incidents in the military be created). The current version of the Clery Act includes a list of nine criminal offenses that a university is required to report to authorities. 20 U.S.C. § 1092(f)(1)(F)(i). This list includes murder, sex offenses (forcible and non-forcible), robbery, aggravated assault, burglary, motor vehicle theft, manslaughter, arson, and arrests or persons referred for campus disciplinary action for liquor law violations, drug-related violations, and weapons possession. *Id.*

¹²⁴ 20 U.S.C. § 1092(f). See *generally* The Harry Lew Military Hazing Accountability and Prevention Act of 2012, U.S. CONGRESSWOMAN JUDY CHU (Dec. 20, 2012), <http://chu.house.gov/issue/military-hazing> [hereinafter JUDY CHU] (proposing a national database that tracks hazing incidents in the military be created). The current version of the Clery Act includes a list of nine criminal offenses that a university is required to report to authorities. 20 U.S.C. § 1092(f)(1)(F)(i). This list includes murder, sex offenses (forcible and non-forcible), robbery, aggravated assault, burglary, motor vehicle theft, manslaughter, arson, and arrests or persons referred for campus disciplinary action for liquor law violations, drug-related violations, and weapons possession. *Id.*

¹²⁵ See Donna Gordon Blankinship, *Universities Looking to Federal Gov't for Funds*, HUFFINGTON POST (June 17, 2012, 5:12 AM), http://www.huffingtonpost.com/2010/04/17/universities-looking-to-f_n_541587.html.

¹²⁶ JUDY CHU, *supra* note 120.

Federal anti-hazing legislation provides the key to putting a stop to the ongoing abuse occurring in Greek organizations across the nation. As such, Congress should (1) set forth a uniform definition for hazing, which should address physical and psychological hazing activities; (2) establish who may be found liable for a hazing incident; (3) define the level of the offense as either misdemeanor or felony, and establish the punishment for each level of offense; (4) set up a national advisory committee, and (5) require universities to report hazing incidents to a national database. Even though there are many critics of hazing regulation, these critics offer no better solution to what is becoming an epidemic on university campuses nationwide.

V. CONCLUSION

Hazing among Greek letter organizations continues to be an issue of national importance.¹²⁷ A majority of states have responded to public outcries over hazing by enacting anti-hazing legislation.¹²⁸ However, state laws vary in defining what hazing is, what criminal consequences, if any, an offender may be subject to, and how to punish violations of anti-hazing laws.¹²⁹ It is time for Congress to step in and provide guidance toward solving the hazing issue. Congress needs to (1) set forth a uniform definition for hazing, which should address physical and psychological hazing activities; (2) establish who may be found liable for a hazing incident; (3) define the level of the offense as either misdemeanor or felony, and establish the punishment for each level of offense; (4) set up a national advisory committee, and (5) require universities to report hazing incidents to a national database.

Enacting federal anti-hazing legislation with a uniform definition for hazing will make it easier for student organizations and their individual members to recognize when someone is a victim of hazing.¹³⁰ Specifically addressing both physical and psychological hazing activities within a uniform definition for hazing will educate students on what constitutes hazing.¹³¹ Addressing both physical and psychological hazing activities also can help increase the number of reported hazing incidents.¹³² A uniform definition that identifies examples of the physical and psychological hazing activities also will make it easier for schools and organizations to hold violators more accountable for hazing activities.¹³³

¹²⁷ Reginald Stuart, *Colleges, Universities Initiating National Movement Against Hazing*, DIVERSE ISSUES IN HIGHER EDUCATION, Oct. 10, 2013, <http://diverseeducation.com/article/56611/>. Hazing occurs on public and private campuses across the nation regardless of a person's racial or ethnic background. *Id.*

¹²⁸ See generally *State Anti-Hazing Laws*, STOPHAZING.ORG (last visited Nov. 23, 2015), <http://www.stophazing.org/laws.html> (listing all forty-four state anti-hazing laws).

¹²⁹ Beitman, *supra* note 36.

¹³⁰ See generally Allan & Madden, *supra* note 30 (finding that the majority of students who experienced hazing did not consider the experience to be hazing).

¹³¹ See generally Chad William Ellsworth, *Learning Opportunities: Understanding Students' Definitions of Hazing*, in HAZING ON CAMPUS 75, 78 (Association of Fraternity Advisors, Issues in Focus, 2005), available at http://web.centre.edu/schutts/Hazing_on_Campus.pdf [hereinafter *Understanding Students' Definitions of Hazing*] (discussing significant differences between men and women when identifying what constitutes hazing).

¹³² See generally Allan & Madden, *supra* note 30 at 28, 30 (finding that many students did not report incidents of hazing because they did not know it was hazing or did not realize it was hazing until much later after the incident occurred).

¹³³ See *Understanding Students' Definitions of Hazing*, *supra* note 131, at 75.

Punishment not only serves to hold individuals accountable for the consequences of hazing activities but also provides organizations with an incentive to “create new traditions” that do not include the culture of hazing.¹³⁴ Similarly, states may have incentive to adopt federal anti-hazing directives if federal funding hangs in the balance.¹³⁵

To accomplish the goal of implementing federal anti-hazing legislation, it is necessary for the government, institutions of higher education, organizations, and political action groups to work together to achieve a well-crafted and effective solution for the pervasive problem of hazing.¹³⁶ Congress’s implementation of federal anti-hazing legislation will remove the absolute power that nineteen, twenty, and twenty-one year olds have over seventeen and eighteen year olds. This type of legislation will be a large step in helping to prevent, and eventually extinguish, the dangerous tradition of hazing from college campuses.¹³⁷

¹³⁴ Rogers, *supra* note 111.

¹³⁵ See generally *South Dakota v. Dole*, 483 U.S. 203 (1987) (finding that withholding funds that only made up five percent of a state’s obtainable funds from states that did not enact a law was encouraging, not coercive).

¹³⁶ See generally *FratPAC*, *supra* note 70 (stating that anyone interested in finding a way to prevent hazing should be open to any opportunity that may help to reach this goal).

¹³⁷ See generally *Hazing’s Perfect Storm*, *supra* note 2 (asking what other types of organizations allow older members to have absolute power over their younger members).

Appendix A

| States Anti-Hazing Laws | |
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| ALA. CODE § 16-1-23(a) (2015) | Defining hazing as a willful act on any educational premise that “recklessly or intentionally endangers the mental or physical health of any student” or any willful act on any educational premise by one person or a group of people assaulting or attempting to assault another student |
| ARIZ. REV. STAT. ANN. § 15-2301(C)(2) (2015) | Defining hazing as an act by a student, or group of students, against another student who is connected with initiation into an organization affiliated with an educational institution, or maintenance of membership in an organization affiliated with an educational institution, and the act has a substantial risk of or causes physical or mental harm or degradation |
| ARK. CODE ANN. § 6-5-201(a) (West 2015) | Defining hazing as any willful act on or off an educational institution’s property committed by a student or group of students to intimidate or beat another student, to discourage that student from remaining in that educational institution, or to play abusive tricks on that student |
| CAL. PENAL CODE § 245.6(b) (Deering 2015) | Defining hazing as an initiation or pre-initiation activity into a student organization, whether or not the organization is recognized by the educational institution, which is likely to cause serious bodily injury to a former, current, or prospective student of any educational institution in the state |
| COLO. REV. STAT. ANN. § 18-9-124(2)(a) (West 2015) | Defining hazing as an activity for the purpose of initiation into a student organization where one person endangers the health and safety of another or causes a risk of bodily injury |
| CONN. GEN. STAT. ANN. § 53-23a(a)(1) (2015) | Defining hazing as a reckless or intentional act by one person that endangers the health or safety of another for the purpose of initiation into a student organization or as a condition for continued membership in a student organization |
| DEL. CODE ANN. tit. 14, § 9302 (West 2015) | Defining hazing as a reckless or intentional act or situation that endangers the mental or physical health or safety of a student or that willfully destroys or removes private or public property for the purpose of initiation or continued membership in an organization recognized by an institution of higher education |
| FLA. STAT. ANN. § 1006.63(1) (West 2015) | Defining hazing as an act or situation for the purpose of, but not limited to, initiation into an organization of a postsecondary institution “that recklessly or intentionally endangers the mental or physical health or safety of a student” |
| GA. CODE ANN. § 16-5-61(a)(1) (West 2015) | Defining haze as “to subject a student to an activity which endangers or is likely to endanger the physical health of a student, regardless of a student's willingness to participate in such activity” |
| IDAHO CODE ANN. | Defining haze as “to subject a person to bodily danger or physical |

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| § 18-917(2)–(3) (West 2015) | harm or a likelihood of bodily danger or physical harm,” listing acts a person may be subjected to that would be considered hazing, and limiting hazing to actions or situations connected with initiation into any group or organization |
| 720 ILL. COMP. STAT. ANN. 5/12C-50(a) (LexisNexis 2015) | Defining hazing as knowingly making a student or other person in an institution of higher education perform an act for the purpose of initiation into an organization associated with that institution if the institution did not authorize the act and the person suffers serious bodily injury |
| IND. CODE ANN. § 35-42-2-2(a) (West 2015) | Defining hazing as forcing a person, with or without his or her consent, to commit an act that could cause substantial risk of bodily injury for the purpose of associating with a group or organization |
| IOWA CODE ANN. § 708.10 (West 2015) | Defining hazing as an intentional or reckless act committed by a person for the purpose of initiation into an organization connected with a school, college, or university that involves forced activity that could endanger the physical health or safety of another |
| KAN. STAT. ANN. § 21-5418 (2015) | Defining hazing as encouraging or demanding a person interested in becoming a member of a social or fraternal organization to perform an act “which could reasonably be expected to result in great bodily harm, disfigurement or death or which is done in a manner whereby great bodily harm, disfigurement or death could be inflicted” |
| KY. REV. STAT. ANN. § 164.375(1) (West 2015) | Prohibiting any action or situation that recklessly or intentionally endangers the mental or physical health of another or forces another to consume alcohol or drugs for the purpose of initiation into an organization |
| LA. REV. STAT. ANN. § 17:1801 (2015) | Defining hazing as “the use of any method of initiation into fraternal organizations in any educational institution supported wholly or in part by public funds, which is likely to cause bodily danger or physical punishment to any student or other person attending any such institution” |
| ME. REV. STAT. ANN. tit. 20-A, § 6553 (2015) | Defining injurious hazing as “any action or situation, including harassing behavior, that recklessly or intentionally endangers the mental or physical health of any school personnel or a student enrolled in a public school” |
| MD. CODE ANN., Crim. Law § 3-607 (West 2015) | Prohibiting a person from intentionally or recklessly acting in a way that causes a risk of serious bodily injury to another for the purpose of initiation into a student organization of a school, college, or university |
| MASS. GEN. LAWS ANN. ch. 269, § 17 (West 2015) | Defining hazing as any conduct of initiation, whether performed on public or private property, that willfully or recklessly endangers the physical or mental health of another, including activities that adversely affect the physical health or safety of that person and causes extreme mental stress |

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| <p>MICH. COMP. LAWS ANN. § 750.411t(7)(b) (West 2015)</p> | <p>Defining hazing as a person or group of persons intentionally, knowingly, or recklessly acting in a way that he or she knew or should have known could harm an individual's physical health or safety, "and that is done for the purpose of pledging, being initiated into, affiliating with, participating in, holding office in, or maintaining membership in any organization" and listing activities that would be considered hazing</p> |
| <p>MINN. STAT. ANN. § 121A.69(1)(a) (West 2015)</p> | <p>Defining hazing as committing an act, or coercing another student to commit an act, that substantially risks harm to another or that person for the purpose of initiation into a student organization</p> |
| <p>MISS. CODE ANN. § 97-3-105 (West 2015)</p> | <p>(1) Defining first degree hazing as a person intentionally or recklessly acting in a way that substantially risks physical injury to another for the purpose of initiation into or affiliation with an organization and causes such injury to that person</p> <p>(3) Defining second degree hazing as a person intentionally or recklessly acting in a way that substantially risks physical injury to another for the purpose of initiation into or affiliation with an organization</p> |
| <p>MO. ANN. STAT. § 578.360(2) (West 2015)</p> | <p>Defining hazing as a willful act that “recklessly endangers the mental or physical health or safety of a student or prospective member for purpose of initiation” into or continued membership in an organization from an educational institution and the person committing the act knows there is a high probability of risk of death or serious bodily or psychological harm</p> |
| <p>NEB. REV. STAT. ANN. § 28-311.06(1)(a) (West 2015)</p> | <p>Defining hazing as activity that “intentionally or recklessly endangers the physical or mental health or safety” of a person for the purpose of initiation into or continued membership with an organization and listing activity that would be considering to be endangering the physical or mental health or safety of a person such as forced consumption of food or alcohol</p> |
| <p>NEV. REV. STAT. ANN. § 200.605(4) (West 2015)</p> | <p>Defining hazing as activity that “intentionally or recklessly endangers the physical health” of another for the purpose of initiation into student organization, academic association, or sports team affiliated with a high school, college, or university within the state and listing activity that would be considering hazing such as forced consumption of food or alcohol</p> |
| <p>N.H. REV. STAT. ANN. § 631:7 (2015)</p> | <p>Defining student hazing as an act directed towards a student, or coercing a student to act, when a reasonable person would know the act is likely to cause physical or psychological harm and the act is a condition of initiation into or continued membership with any organization</p> |

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| N.J. STAT. ANN. § 2C:40-3 (West 2015) | Defining hazing as knowingly or recklessly organizing, promoting, or facilitating conduct that has a risk of danger of bodily injury to another and defining aggravated hazing as hazing that results in serious bodily injury to another |
| N.Y. PENAL LAW § 120.16 (McKinney 2015) | Defining hazing in the first degree as intentionally or recklessly acting in a way that has a substantial risk of physical injury to another for the purpose of initiation into any organization and causes the physical injury |
| N.Y. PENAL LAW § 120.17 | Defining hazing in the second degree as intentionally or recklessly acting in a way that creates a substantial risk of physical injury to another in the course of that person's initiation with any organization |
| N.C. GEN. STAT. ANN. § 14-35 (West 2015) | Defining hazing as "to subject another student to physical injury as part of an initiation, or as a prerequisite to membership, into any organized school group, including any society, athletic team, fraternity or sorority, or other similar group" |
| N.D. CENT. CODE ANN. § 12.1-17-10 (West 2015) | Defining hazing as when a person willfully acts in a way that creates a substantial risk of physical injury to another for the purpose of initiation into any organization |
| OHIO REV. CODE ANN. § 2903.31(A) (West 2015) | Defining hazing as acting or coercing another to act, including the victim, in a way that creates substantial risk of mental or physical harm to another for the purpose of initiation into a student or other organization |
| OKLA. STAT. tit. 21, § 1190(F)(1) (2015) | Defining hazing as "recklessly or intentionally endangering the mental health or physical health or safety of a student for the purpose of initiation or admission into or affiliation with any organization operating subject to the sanction of the public or private school or of any institution of higher education in this state" |
| OR. REV. STAT. ANN. § 163.197(4)(a) (West 2015) | Defining haze as to subject a person to physical brutality or to activity that has an unreasonable risk of harm or adversely affects the physical health or safety of that person, to compel a person to consume substances that have an unreasonable risk of harm or adversely affect the physical health or safety of that person, or to induce or require a person to perform an act that involves a crime or an act of hazing |
| 24 PA. CONS. STAT. ANN. § 5352 (West 2015) | Defining hazing as recklessly or intentionally endangering the mental or physical health or safety of a student, or willfully destroying or removing public or private property for the purpose of initiation into or continued membership with any organization recognized by an institute of higher education |
| R.I. GEN. LAWS ANN. § 11-21-1(b) (West 2015) | Defining hazing as acting willfully or recklessly in a way that endangers the physical or mental health or safety of a student or other person for the purpose of initiation into a student organization, whether on public or private property |

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| S.C. CODE ANN. § 59-101-200(A)(4) (2015) | Defining hazing as “the wrongful striking, laying open hand upon, threatening with violence, or offering to do bodily harm by a superior student to a subordinate student with intent to punish or injure the subordinate student,” or any other unauthorized act that is “tyrannical, abusive, shameful, insulting, or humiliating” |
| TENN. CODE ANN. § 49-7-123(a)(1) (West 2015) | Defining hazing as the intentional or reckless act of a student, or group of students, on or off property of a higher educational institution, that endangers the mental or physical health or safety of another student, or induces that student to endanger the student’s mental or physical health or safety |
| TEX. EDUC. CODE ANN. § 37.151(6) (West 2015) | Defining hazing as one or more persons intentionally, knowingly, or recklessly acting in a way, whether on or off an educational institution's campus, that harms another student's mental or physical health "for the purpose of pledging, being initiated into, affiliating with, holding office in, or maintaining membership in an organization" and includes physical activity such as sleep deprivation, consumption of food or alcohol, or activity that intimidates or threatens a student |
| UTAH CODE ANN. § 76-5-107.5(1) (West 2015) | Defining hazing as intentionally or recklessly acting in a way that “endangers the mental or physical health or safety of another,” or involves physical brutality, consumption of any substance, or activity that subjects a person to extreme mental stress and is for the purpose of initiation into, holding office in, or maintaining membership in any organization or if the actor belonged to the organization within the preceding two years and knew the victim was attempting to join the organization |
| VT. STAT. ANN. tit. 16, § 11(a)(30) (West 2015) | Defining hazing as an active or passive act committed by a person, or group of persons, against a student for the purpose of pledging, initiation into, holding office in, or maintaining membership in any educational institution affiliated organization that should reasonably be expected to humiliate, intimidate, or demean the student of endanger the student’s mental or physical health or safety |
| VA. CODE ANN. § 18.2-56 (West 2015) | Defining hazing as recklessly or intentionally acting in a way that harms another student's health or safety or causes that student bodily injury for the purpose of being initiated into or maintaining membership in a student organization, such as a fraternity or sorority, "regardless of whether the student or students so endangered or injured participated voluntarily in the relevant activity" |
| WASH. REV. CODE ANN. § 28B.10.900 (West 2015) | Defining hazing as "any method of initiation into a student organization or living group, or any pastime or amusement engaged in with respect to such an organization or living group that causes, or is likely to cause, bodily danger or physical harm, or serious mental or emotional harm" to a student or person at a public or private institution of higher education in the state |

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| W. VA. CODE ANN. § 18-16-2 (West 2015) | Defining hazing as recklessly or intentionally endangering the mental or physical health or safety of another or causing another to destroy public or private property for the purpose of initiation into or as continued membership within an organization affiliated with an institution of higher education |
| WIS. STAT. ANN. § 948.51 (2015) | Stating a person may not intentionally or recklessly act in a way that endangers the physical health or safety of another student, such as whipping, forcing the consumption of food, or any other forced activity that endangers the health or safety of a student, for the purpose of initiation into an organization affiliated with a school, college, or university |

Appendix B

| State Laws Charging Hazing as a Misdemeanor | |
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| ALA. CODE § 16-1-23(d), (e) (2015) | Finding anyone who commits hazing as defined by the statute as guilty of a Class C misdemeanor and any person or organization associated with an educational institution that participates in hazing activities, or knowingly allows hazing activities to occur, forfeits the right to any public funds, scholarships, or awards |
| ARK. CODE ANN. § 6-5-203 (West 2015) | Labeling hazing as a Class B misdemeanor, imposing punishment on any student convicted of hazing, and ordering that student be expelled from any educational institution he or she is attending |
| CAL. PENAL CODE § 245.6(c) (Deering 2015) | Charging a hazing act that does not result in serious bodily injury as a misdemeanor punishable by a fine of no more than \$5,000 but no less than \$ 100, imprisonment in a county jail for one year at most, or both |
| COLO. REV. STAT. ANN. § 18-9-124 (West 2015) | Finding any person who engages in hazing activities as committing a class 3 misdemeanor |
| CONN. GEN. STAT. ANN. § 53-23a (West 2015) | (c) Imposing a fine of not more than \$1,500 on any student organization that violates the hazing statute and requiring that organization to give up all rights and privileges of operating as an organization at an institution of higher education for at least one year (d) Imposing a fine of not more than \$1,000 on any member of a student organization that violates the hazing statute |
| DEL. CODE ANN. tit. 14, § 9303 (West 2015) | Finding “[a]ny person who causes or participates in hazing commits a class B misdemeanor” |
| FLA. STAT. § 1006.63(3) (2015) | Finding a person who “intentionally or recklessly commits any act of hazing as defined in subsection (1) upon another person who is a member of or an applicant to any type of student organization and the hazing creates a substantial risk of physical injury or death to such other person” guilty of a first degree misdemeanor |
| FLA. STAT. § 775.082(4)(a) | Stating that a first-degree misdemeanor is punishable by imprisonment up to one year |
| FLA. STAT. § 775.083(1)(d) | Stating that if a violator is ordered to do so, he or she may have to pay a fine of \$1,000 maximum |
| GA. CODE ANN. § 16-5-61(c) (West 2015) | Finding “[a]ny person who violates this Code section shall be guilty of a misdemeanor of a high and aggravated nature” |
| IDAHO CODE ANN. § 18-917(4) (West 2015) | Finding any student or member of a student organization who personally violates the hazing statute to be guilty of a misdemeanor |
| IND. CODE ANN. § 35-42-2-2 (West 2015) | (b) Labeling criminal recklessness as defined in this subsection as a Class B misdemeanor, except as provided in subsection (c) (c)(1) Labeling criminal recklessness as defined in subsection (b) as a Class A misdemeanor if the activity includes the use of a vehicle |

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| IOWA CODE ANN. § 708.10(2)–(3) (West 2015) | Finding a person guilty of a simple misdemeanor if he or she commits an act of hazing, but guilty of a serious misdemeanor if the act causes serious bodily injury to another |
| KAN. STAT. ANN. § 21-5418 (2015) | Finding a person who violates the hazing statute guilty of a class B nonperson misdemeanor |
| KY. REV. STAT. ANN. § 164.375(1) (West 2015) | Stating that in addition to any penalty pursuant to the penal law that a violator may be subjected to, the University of Kentucky and the University of Louisville shall make a hazing policy and include a provision ejecting or expelling from the campus or property any person found to be in violation of the policy and taking back permission to operate on campus property any organization that violates the policy |
| LA. REV. STAT. ANN. § 17:1801 (2015) | Stating that a person who violates the hazing statute will have to pay a fine of not less than ten dollars but not more than \$100, or be imprisoned for not less than ten days but not more than thirty days, or both, and shall be expelled from the educational institution where the hazing incident occurred and may not return to the institution during the term in which the violation occurred |
| ME. REV. STAT. ANN. tit. 20-A, § 6553(3) (2015) | Requiring the school board to establish penalties, in addition to any civil or criminal penalty that a violator may be subjected to, that would eject from campus any person who violates the hazing policy but is not associated with the school, suspend or expel any student or faculty member who violates the policy, or taking back permission to operate on campus property any organization that violates the policy |
| MD. CODE ANN., Crim. Law § 3-607(b) (West 2015) | Finding any person that violates this statute to be guilty of a misdemeanor and is subject to a prison sentence of not more than six months, or a fine of not more than \$500, or both |
| MASS. GEN. LAWS ANN. ch. 269 (West 2015) | § 17 Imposing a fine of not more than \$3,000, or imprisonment of not more than one year, or both on the principal organizer of, or on a person participating in, a hazing activity § 18 Imposing a fine of not more than \$1,000 on any person who knows of another being hazed and is at the scene of the hazing but fails to report the hazing activity, unless that person can show he or she would not be able to report the activity without danger to himself or others |
| MICH. COMP. LAWS ANN. § 750.411t(2) (West 2015) | Finding that a violation of the statute that results in physical injury is a misdemeanor punishable by imprisonment of no more than ninety-three days, or a fine of \$1,000 at most, or both |
| MISS. CODE ANN. § 97-3-105 (West 2015) | (2) Charging first degree hazing as a misdemeanor and imposing a fine of no more than \$2,000, or imprisonment in county jail for not more than six months, or both (4) Charging second degree hazing as a misdemeanor punishable by a fine of no more than \$1,000 |

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| MO. ANN. STAT. § 578.365 (West 2012) | Classifying hazing as a class A misdemeanor |
| NEB. REV. STAT. ANN. § 28-311.06(2) (West 2015) | Finding any one who commits the offense of hazing to be guilty of a Class II misdemeanor |
| NEV. REV. STAT. ANN. § 200.605(1) (West 2015) | Finding a person guilty of a misdemeanor if no substantial bodily harm results from a hazing activity, and guilty of a gross misdemeanor if there is substantial bodily harm |
| N.H. REV. STAT. ANN. § 631:7(II) (2015) | Finding a natural person guilty of a class B misdemeanor if he or she knowingly participates in a hazing activity, knowingly submits to hazing but does not report the hazing to anyone, or is present or has direct knowledge of a hazing activity but fails to report it and finding an educational institution or organization affiliated with an educational institution guilty of a misdemeanor if it knowingly allows students to commit hazing acts, knowingly or fails to take the reasonable means necessary to prevent hazing, or fails to report hazing incidents to enforcement authorities |
| N.J. STAT. ANN. § 2C:40-3(b) (West 2015) | A person who violates the hazing statute by committing an act prohibited by subsection (a) of this statute that results in serious bodily injury to another is guilty of aggravated hazing, which is a fourth degree crime |
| N.Y. PENAL LAW § 120.16 (McKinney 2015) | Charging a person found guilty of hazing in the first degree with a class A misdemeanor |
| N.Y. PENAL LAW § 120.17 | Charging a person found guilty of hazing in the second degree with a violation |
| N.C. GEN. STAT. ANN. § 14-35 (West 2015) | Finding a violation of the hazing statute to be a Class 2 misdemeanor |
| N.D. CENT. CODE ANN. § 12.1-17-10 (West 2015) | Finding a violation of the hazing statute to constitute a class B misdemeanor, unless the hazing activity causes physical injury, which constitutes a class A misdemeanor |
| OHIO REV. CODE ANN. § 2903.31 (West 2015) | Finding anyone who violates the hazing statute guilty of a fourth degree misdemeanor |
| OKLA. STAT. ANN. tit. 21, § 1190 (West 2015) | (D) Charging any organization that violates the hazing statute guilty of a misdemeanor punishable by a maximum fine of \$1,500 and forfeiture of any rights or privileges it received from operating at a public or private educational institution for at least one year (E) Charging any person who violates the statute with a misdemeanor punishable by imprisonment up to ninety days in a county jail, a maximum fine of \$500, or both |
| OR. REV. STAT. ANN. § 163.197(2) (West 2015) | Charging a student organization that violates the hazing statute with a Class A violation and a student affiliated with a student organization that violates the statute with a Class B violation |

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| 24 PA. CONS. STAT. ANN. § 5353 (West 2015) | Stating that “[a]ny person who causes or participates in hazing commits a misdemeanor of the third degree” |
| R.I. GEN. LAWS ANN. § 11-21-1(a) (West 2015) | Charging any organization or person that participates in hazing activity as defined by the statute is guilty of a misdemeanor punishable by a maximum fine of \$500, or imprisonment between thirty days and one year, or both |
| S.C. CODE ANN. § 16-3-530 (2015) | Finding any person who violates the hazing statute to be guilty of a misdemeanor punishable by a maximum fine of \$500, or imprisonment up to twelve months, or both |
| TEX. EDUC. CODE ANN. § 37.152 (West 2015) | (b) Charging a failure to report a hazing incident as a Class B misdemeanor (c) Charging any offense under the hazing statute that does not result in serious bodily injury to another as a Class B misdemeanor (d) Charging any offense under the hazing statute that results in serious bodily injury to another as a Class A misdemeanor |
| UTAH CODE ANN. § 76-5-107.5(3) (West 2015) | (a) Charging a person who violates a hazing statute with a class B misdemeanor, subject to exceptions (b) Charging a person who violates a hazing statute with a class A misdemeanor if the act involves operation of a vehicle, or consumption of an alcoholic product, drug, or substance as defined by statute |
| VT. STAT. ANN. tit. 16, § 140c (West 2015) | Subjecting a person who violates the hazing statute with a civil penalty not to exceed \$5,000 |
| VA. CODE ANN. § 18.2-56 (West 2015) | Finding any person who violates the hazing statute to be guilty of a Class 1 misdemeanor |
| WASH. REV. CODE ANN. § 28B.10.901 (West 2015) | Finding a violation of the hazing statute to be a misdemeanor punishable under Wash. Rev. Code Ann. § 9A.20.021(3) (West 2014), which states a misdemeanor is punishable by a maximum fine of \$1,000, or imprisonment for not more than ninety days, or both |
| W. VA. CODE ANN. § 18-16-3 (West 2015) | Charging a person who violates the hazing statute with a misdemeanor punishable by a maximum fine of \$1,000, imprisonment in a county or regional jail not to exceed nine months, or both |
| WIS. STAT. ANN. § 948.51(3)(a) (West 2015) | Charging a violator of the statute with a “Class A misdemeanor if the act results in or is likely to result in bodily harm to another” |

Appendix C

| State Laws Charging Hazing as either a Misdemeanor or a Felony | |
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| CAL. PENAL CODE § 245.6(d) (Deering 2015) | Charging a hazing act that does result in serious bodily injury or death as a misdemeanor or a felony punishable by imprisonment in a county jail for not more than one year or imprisonment pursuant to § 1170(h) |
| 720 ILL. COMP. STAT. ANN. 5/12C-50(b) (LexisNexis 2015) | A person found guilty of violating the hazing statute will be charged with a Class A misdemeanor, unless the hazing activity results in death or great bodily harm, in which case the violator will be charged with a Class 4 felony |
| FLA. STAT. § 1006.63(2) (2015) | Finding a person that “intentionally or recklessly commits any act of hazing as defined in subsection (1) upon another person who is a member of or an applicant to any type of student organization and the hazing results in serious bodily injury or death of such other person” guilty of a third degree felony |
| FLA. STAT. § 775.082(3)(d) | Stating a third degree felony is punishable by up to five years in prison |
| FLA. STAT. § 775.083(1)(c) | Stating a violator may have to pay a fine of up to \$5,000 |
| IND. CODE ANN. § 35-42-2-2(c)(2), (3) (West 2015) | Labeling criminal recklessness as defined in subsection (b) as a Class D felony if the act was committed while armed with a deadly weapon or the person was aggressively driving in a way that results in serious bodily injury to another, and as a Class C felony if the act involved shooting a firearm in a place where people are likely to gather or that person was aggressively driving in a way that results in death of another |
| MICH. COMP. LAWS ANN. § 750.411t(2) (West 2015) | Finding that a violation resulting in serious impairment of bodily function is a felony punishable by imprisonment of no more than five years, or a fine of no more than \$2,500, or both, and a violation that results in death is a felony punishable by imprisonment of no more than fifteen years, or a fine of \$10,000 at most, or both |
| MO. ANN. STAT. § 578.365 (West 2012) | Elevating the charge for violating the hazing statute to a class C felony if the act “creates a substantial risk to the life of the student or prospective member” |
| TEX. EDUC. CODE ANN. § 37.152(e) (West 2015) | Charging any offense under the hazing statute that results in death of another as a state jail felony |
| UTAH CODE ANN. § 76-5-107.5(3) (West 2015) | (c)–(d) Charging a person who violates the hazing statute with a third degree felony if the act involved a dangerous weapon or results in serious bodily injury to another (e) Charging a person who violates the hazing statute with a second degree felony if the hazing act that resulted in serious bodily injury also involved use of a dangerous weapon |

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| W. VA. CODE ANN. § 18-16-3 (West 2015) | Stating that a violator will be charged with a misdemeanor except if the act “would otherwise be deemed a felony as defined in this code,” which would subject the violator to the felony penalties |
| WIS. STAT. ANN. § 948.51(3)(b)–(c) (West 2015) | Charging a violator with a Class H felony “if the act results in great bodily harm to another” or a Class G felony “if the act results in the death of another” |

Appendix D

| State Laws Instructing Educational Institutions to Create and Adopt Hazing Policies | |
|--|---|
| ARIZ. REV. STAT. § 15-2301(A) (2015) | Instructing every public educational institution to adopt an anti-hazing policy that shall include a description of penalties for persons or organizations that violate the policy, including expulsion or suspension |
| MINN. STAT. ANN. § 121A.69(3) (2015) | Instructing a school board to create a hazing policy that includes disciplinary measures that will be taken if a person violates the hazing statute |
| TENN. CODE ANN. § 49-7-123(b) (West 2015) | Instructing a school to create a policy prohibiting hazing that explains the consequences of violating a hazing statute to be distributed to every student at the beginning of each school year |

Acknowledgement

The author would like to thank her family for all the support and encouragement they give her.

About the Author

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Discussion Questions

1. Should a student's voluntary participation in the pledging process be a defense available to a charge of hazing? Why or why not?
2. Is using financial aid as a punishment for hazing violations more likely to affect universities with a higher minority population more than other colleges or universities? How about its impact on students on an individual basis?
3. As a practical matter, will tougher hazing laws penetrate the traditions of secrecy fraternal organizations often exercise? Why or why not?

To Cite this Article

Alvarez, D. (2015, Summer). Death by hazing: Should there be a federal law against fraternity and sorority hazing? *Journal of Multidisciplinary Research*, 7(2), 43-75.



The Mountain God Greets the Sun
2013
Collage by Deming King Harriman

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Student Corner

The Impact of Media on U.S. Hispanics' Professional Job Searches

Cristina C. López
St. Thomas University

Abstract

This article is a result of an in-depth literature review and qualitative study that addresses the challenges Hispanics face as they conduct professional job searches. The article highlights the positive role media, such as company websites, classified ads, or LinkedIn, can play in aiding Latinos obtain professional employment. To better understand the role of media in job searches, the researcher investigated following questions: (1) Which media do Latinos use in general? (2) Do Latinos use media with a critical approach? (3) How does media advertise professional jobs and what methods do Latinos use for professional job searches? (4) Are present Latino media usage behaviors productive for career development and job searches? (5) What are some recommendations for career counseling for Latinos, and what recommendations can the author of this article make to companies for recruiting Latino professionals?

It is important to mention that the study is anecdotal, since the author studied a small sample of 17 individuals. Thus, study findings do not represent the entire U.S. Hispanic population. Results of this study suggest Hispanics under-use the web and other media for professional job searches, with the possibility that the more educated make better use of media when seeking professional positions. Additionally, the study found that career counselors do not possess adequate training in multicultural career advising, and they are not training Hispanics sufficiently in the use of media for their job searches. Finally, this study concludes there are limited Latino role models in leadership positions.

Keywords: Media, professional job searches, career, U.S. Hispanics, Latinos, social media, recruitment.

Introduction

This research addresses the challenges Hispanics¹³⁸ face as they relate to their professional job searches and the role media can play in aiding Latino job seekers. While the emphasis of this study focuses on the use of media for Latino job searches, it also explores how the media can enhance these Latino candidates' professional presentations ultimately helping them with their marketability and placement.

Although Latinos are playing an increasing part in the professional arena in terms of people, they remain underemployed and under-represented in leadership roles, earning less than mainstream professionals (Koc, 2011, p. 18). Despite the fact that there are several variables that may be impacting Latino professional development and placement, such as lack of education or poor academic counseling in high schools, those Latinos who do obtain their college degrees remain underemployed (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2015, p. 16).

The subsequent discussion on employment uses the terminology typically found in employment statistic reports that often refer to ethnicity and race interchangeably. Thus, society uses the terms White and Latinos or Hispanics to denote these groups. Similarly, the term Latinos or Hispanics includes both male and female genders, as does the singular version as well. Employment statistics for Latinos suggest they are underemployed: typical weekly earnings of Whites are \$765, compared to \$535 for Hispanics, almost a third less than Whites. Besides, the numbers are more disheartening with the Latino male population who are traditionally the head of the household. Hispanic males earn an average of \$560 weekly, versus \$850 for White males. Moreover, Hispanic women earn \$508 per week, compared to \$684 for White females. These numbers indicate that Latinos' compensation still is significantly lower than that of Whites (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2015, p. 22).

Furthermore, there is not sufficient representation of Latinos with college degrees in corporate and institutional U.S. With changing markets that are increasingly multicultural and international, the lack of Latino perspective and contributions within an organization affects industries' abilities to compete (Marroquin, 2009, p. 2). The *Foundation Board Diversity Report 2009*, prepared for The Greenlining Institute, presents data on the diversity of the boards of directors of the 46 largest independent foundations in the United States. Results from this 2009 report clearly demonstrate that color is lacking on the boards of directors of independent foundations. The Greenlining Institute found that among these foundations, 28% do not have a single person of color on their boards, and out of this 28%, only 8% are Latino (Marroquin, 2009, p. 1).

Rationale

Hispanics have power in the United States today, yet this influence does not always translate into leadership positions in 'corporate U.S.' (Blancero, DelCampo, & Marron, 2007, p.

¹³⁸ Hispanics, also called Latinos (Suro & Passel, 2003; Oropesa & Landale, 2004) are those born in (first generation) or descendants of those born in (second generation) a Caribbean, Central, or South American country (Landale, Oropesa, & Bradatan, 2006). The terms Hispanics or Latinos increased in popularity after the Immigration and Nationality Act in 1965 to identify the racial and ethnic identities of those who came from Latin America, but can have ambiguous meaning because they include individuals from different nationalities (Oropesa & Landale, 2004).

13). Hispanics hold less than 2% of corporate board seats of the Fortune 1000 companies (Hartman, Johnson, Stone, & Stone-Romero, 2007, p. 21), suggesting Hispanics are not currently in positions of influence in the business world.

Besides the absence of Latinos in corporate board seats, there are insufficient role models for the Hispanic population. There appears to be a noticeable lack of 'pipeline' individuals who could provide essential mentoring and social support for emerging Hispanics in professional positions. For example, almost 38% of all jobs in the United States are in the "management, professional and related occupations" classification. Of those, 75% belong to Whites, 8.8% by African-Americans, 7.5% by Asians, and 8.7% by Hispanics (United States Department of Labor, 2014). This statistic could indicate a deficiency of role models for future Latino generations who need to be fully adapt and have a sense of ownership of U.S. society.

Purpose

Critical to successful placement in professional jobs is having a command of sophisticated strategies for effective job searches, which Latinos appear to lack (Rainey, 2011, p. 14). "I think the business community is desperate for the Hispanic community to show up," said Frank Wyckoff, owner of Snelling Personnel Services: "It is a pool of people rich with potential and talent" (Frank Wyckoff as cited in Clark, Sawyer, & Severy, 2004, p. 27).

Latinos, however, lack effective strategies for professional job searches. It is important to determine the media related activities in which Latinos engage for professional job searches to be able to provide appropriate career counseling.

Context

To understand the role media play in the decision-making processes conducive to successful professional job searches, this study examines (1) the way Latinos use the media, (2) the particular medium Latinos use, (3) the frequency with which Latinos use the media, and (4) whether Latinos are using the right media for the careers they are pursuing.

To grasp the media's potential in the Latino job search process, the context in which these searches take place also needs explanation. To begin, corporations' concepts of diversity and inclusion are a key variable that influences the placement of Hispanics in professional positions. Latinos need to be aware of how others perceive their potential for leadership positions and how they convey their abilities. While the media is useful in helping to inform them of opportunities and in communicating their talents to potential employers, Latinos might not be using the media to their utmost advantage for job searching. In its February 2012 "American Pulse Survey," *BIGinsight*, which measures U.S. adult Internet usage, found Hispanics are more active on social media than other ethnicities (Hispanics more active on social media, 2012). They are, however, more active on purely social sites such as Facebook, where roughly 44% of Latinos log in more often than once a day. On the other hand, on LinkedIn, a professional job-search site with more than 364 million members in more than 200 countries and territories and more than 2 million companies with LinkedIn Company Pages (LinkedIn Press Center, 2015), only 8% of Latinos log in more often than once a day. Indeed, over half of U.S. Hispanics (56.6%) do not even have a LinkedIn account (Hispanics more active on social media, 2012). The author believes this higher usage of social media (Facebook), versus professional online

media (LinkedIn), could lead to fewer professional placement successes of Hispanics through online media.

To make matters worse, many of the long-term unemployed Latino professionals – defined as those who have been out of work six months or longer – are having trouble finding work because some employers are reluctant to hire those who are not currently working or laid off. Employers sometimes incorrectly infer that unemployed candidates have poor work habits or lack the necessary skills to succeed in today’s global workforce. Online job ads have displayed verbiage like “the unemployed need not apply” or “only applications from those currently employed will be considered” (Rainey, 2011, p.14). Latinos need to develop the skills to overcome these negative perceptions generated through online and new media platforms (Clark, Sawyer, & Severy, 2004, p. 28). Knowledge of how to use media, particularly the Internet, to convey an applicant’s potential, is a useful tool for overcoming employer bias.

Other challenges Latinos face in professional job searches include that they may not receive appropriate career counseling particularly upon graduation from college. The college years are undoubtedly a period of transition for many students and handling that transition is irrefutably a considerable task. Many students need help in finding a new direction and assessing their position in the economy. This is evidently an assignment suited to career services professionals who provide counseling to students. Media usage in professional job searching is a relevant topic that career counselors should incorporate into their advising to Latinos and often do not (Clark, Sawyer, & Severy, 2004, p. 29).

Cultural competence is another area that needs exploration and that can affect media usage in applying for professional positions. In order to guide Latinos appropriately, career counselors should have a thorough understanding of both their own culture and their clients’ cultures, comprising recent information and appropriate techniques for those particular populations, including use of the media in professional job searches (Clark, Sawyer, & Severy, 2004, p. 29). Unfortunately, only a small percentage of college students take advantage of the assistance available to them with their career development (Koc, 2011, p. 22), and if career counselors are not culturally sensitive, even fewer Latinos will seek their advice.

Furthermore, Latinos may have insufficient skills for preparing résumés including the use of media for enhanced presentations and delivery. Having limited command of the full range of the media’s capabilities for enhancing professional applications that include the use of YouTube and other media sources, can reduce the level of confidence an applicant may convey when interviewing for a professional position. Additionally, having confidence is key to seeking out a greater variety of opportunities, taking chances, and being better able to see the possibilities in the future, rather than the roadblocks (Brooks, 2011, p. 31).

Structure of the Study

This study attempts to explain the potential of media in helping Latinos gain professional employment. Following the introduction, the author tackles Lazarsfeld and Stanton’s *Active Audience Theories* (Baran & Davis, 2015, p. 295), which serves as the theoretical framework for this study. This theory addresses what people/audiences do with media rather than emphasize what media does to audiences. Next, the literature review examines the role of media in job searches and responds to the research questions below:

1. What media do Latinos use in general?
2. Do Latinos use media with a critical approach?
3. How does media advertise professional jobs, and what methods do Latinos use for professional job searches?
4. Are present Latino media usage behaviors productive for career development or job searches?
5. What are some recommendations for career counseling for Latinos, and what recommendations can the author of this article make to companies for recruiting Latino professionals?

Finally, based on the *Active Audience Theories*, this researcher conducts an analysis leading to recommendations to help Latinos gain professional employment, providing final observations for future studies.

Theory

The use of *Active Audience Theories* serves as the theoretical framework for this study, which examines what audiences do with media, rather than emphasize what media does to audiences. For example, in 1942, Lazarsfeld and Stanton paid attention to how audiences used media to organize their lives and experiences (as cited by Baran & Davis, 2015, p. 295). These *Mass Society* theories argue that the media do not do things to people; rather, people do things with media. The basic principle is that audiences are active and make media function to satisfy media consumers' purposes. Active audience theory reasons that media audiences do not simply receive information passively but are actively involved, often unconsciously, in making sense of the message with their personal and social contexts. Family background, beliefs, values, culture, interests, education, and experiences may consequently influence the decoding of a media message (Baran & Davis, 2015, p. 295).

While media usage can become a shared experience, the idea that people use mass media and specific content for individual purposes is valid. Consumers use the media to have their needs gratified and this forms the basis of the theories that we call *Active Audience* theories (Baran & Davis, 2015, p. 260). *Active Audience* theories do not attempt to understand what the media do to people, but, rather, focus on assessing what people do with media. For this reason, one refers to these theories as *audience-centered*, rather than *source-dominated* theories.

Previously, *Mass Society* theories and the response to the media focused researchers' attention on the negative consequences of media, intentional or not. One could see audience members as passively responding to whatever content media companies presented to them. There were some early critics of this view. For example, John Dewey (1927) argued that educated people could make good use of media. He saw the problem of propaganda as solvable through public education, rather than through censorship; if people could learn to make better use of media content, they would not need protection from it (Dewey, 1927). Despite these arguments, empirical research still focused on finding evidence of how the media could manipulate average people. Researchers were slow to develop the perspective that average people can be responsible media consumers who use media for their own valuable purposes - in other words, an active audience.

In the 1940s, the work of Herzog, Lazarsfeld, and Stanton (Baran & Davis, 2015, p. 261)

reflected the implicit concern for studying an active gratification-seeking audience. Lazarsfeld and Stanton (1942) produced a series of studies throughout the 1940s that paid significant attention to how audiences used media to organize their lives. For example, they studied the value of early-morning radio reports to farmers.

Herta Herzog, a colleague of Lazarsfeld, claims to be the originator of the *Uses and Gratifications* approach. Herzog's 1944 article "Motivations and gratifications of daily serial listeners," was the first published research to provide a thorough examination of media gratification. She wanted to understand why so many housewives enjoyed radio soap operas. This study involved asking questions to women who listened to daytime radio programs on a regular basis, including such questions as: "What do the programs mean to you?", "Why do you listen to the programs?", and "What do you do with what you hear on the programs?" As part of her study, Herzog interviewed 100 radio soap-opera fans and identified 3 major types of gratification. The first type was purely a means of emotional release. The second discussed the opportunities for wishful thinking. Finally, the third type of media gratification related to the advice obtained from listening to daytime serials (Herzog, 1944, p. 3).

Contrary to Lazarsfeld's typical effects research, Herzog's research did not try to measure the influence that soap opera listening had on women. Instead, she was satisfied with assessing their reasons and experiences – their uses-and-gratifications (Herzog, 1944, p. 3). Herzog summarized the responses to these questions into a formula of "getting into trouble and out again." She found a correlation between the numbers of programs listened to per day and the complexity of the listeners' troubles. The more complex the listeners' troubles or the more profound their inability to cope with their problems, the more they seemed to listen to the soap operas (Herzog as cited in Baran & Davis, 2015, p. 263).

Methodology

The methodology for the present study consists of qualitative research that focuses on a critical analysis of Latino behaviors through a literature review and anecdotal information in the form of interviews with company representatives and Latino job seekers. The author of this article conducted a total of 17 interviews, 8 with company representatives and 9 with Latino job seekers to provide further information about the congruence between recruiters and Latino job seekers' use of media. Though not statistically significant, each participant of the respective groups answered the same questions to help identify a possible trend of media usage by both parties. Additionally, the responses helped identify variables affecting the job search process of Latinos that pave the way for further quantitative studies.

Besides examining the results of the interviews, the next section includes a comprehensive discussion of the literature review covering the following points:

1. Hispanic employment at the professional level
2. Counseling services for Latino job seekers
3. General Latino media usage and media usage for job searches
4. Recent career advertising, media and job search techniques
5. Latino job search behaviors
6. Productivity of Latino job search and media usage behaviors.

Literature Review

Hispanic Employment at the Professional Level

According to a recently released report by the United States Census Bureau, Latinos in the U.S. are 50.5 million people, 16.3% of the population. Latinos have contributed 56% to the population growth of the country from 2000 to 2010, and have \$1 trillion in buying power. The breakdown in demographics among Latinos is 65.5% Mexican, 9.1% Puerto Rican, 3.6% Salvadoran, 3.5% Cuban, 2.8% Dominican, 2.2% Guatemalan, 1.9% Colombian, and 11.4% other (U.S. Census Bureau, 2014). Although Latinos represent the fastest growing sector of the U.S. labor market, their levels of educational and occupational attainment remain significantly below that of non-Hispanic Whites (Driving Diversity, 2003). This may exacerbate the limited recruitment of Latinos to professional positions.

Counseling Services for Latino Job Seekers

The reality of Hispanic employment is not impressive. Hispanics make up 15% of the labor force, yet are 20% of the unemployed. While these statistics refer to overall employment, Latino professionals are part of these figures.

What can unemployed Hispanics do to increase their chances of finding employment? According to Rainey (2011), job seekers first need to perform as consultants. In other words, job seekers need to identify their expertise and skill sets and be ready to communicate their abilities to a potential employer. Furthermore, Rainey suggests that job seekers should engage in volunteer work with an organization that relates to their field of interest and that would be willing to serve as a reference. For example, one of the recruiters in the study mentioned how he became a volunteer of a business professional organization, The National Society of Hispanic MBAs (NSHMBA), which eventually led to a position with TechData, where he currently works as a recruiter.

Job seekers should stay positive and never give up looking for work, no matter how often potential employers bypass them. Last, it is important to convey to potential employers that the job seeker is not idle, but rather actively engaged in a variety of activities conducive to finding employment such as keeping up-to-date in the latest trends of their field of work, networking, and continually applying to positions. This sense of engagement is essential because another primary reason employers discriminate against the long-term unemployed is that they fear the job seekers' skills could have atrophied as a consequence of being in a prolonged, unwanted break (Rainey, 2011, p. 15-16). In contrast, by continually applying to positions, job seekers maintain a disciplined approach to their job searches, stay active, alert, and more importantly, aware of the type of profile their industry is seeking.

As unemployment continues to rise, more people are seeking help to improve their employability. The key is for Latinos not to let their résumés gather dust. Instead, they should remain active, network, and follow up with contacts to uncover new positions and opportunities. Another piece of advice for candidates is to step outside of their comfort zone and consider other industries while maintaining their job function to expand their opportunities (Challenger & Docksai, 2009, p. 31). In other words, Latinos should not only continue to apply to the same position type for which they have experience but also expand to other industries to increase their

chances of securing a job. For example, a print newspaper writer could apply to a communications position at a hospital or fashion firm, maintaining the same job function, yet branching out to other industries.

General Latino Media Consumption and Media Usage for Job Searches

While Latinos use online media for a variety of purposes including job seeking, they focus more on social uses and personal contacts rather than for job searches. Compared to Whites, Hispanics differ significantly in their use of social contacts. Hispanics are 1.4 times more likely than Whites to use personal contacts within their social network of families and friends to locate work. For professional employment, however, as requirements for educational levels increase, the likelihood of utilizing personal contacts decreases, suggesting that using this type of contact is more prevalent for finding work among the less educated (Stainback, 2008, p. 870).

Recent Career Advertising, Media, and Job Search Techniques

College students know that applying for jobs online is part of the current employment process. Conversely, they rarely connect potential success with placement through online applications. This lack of perceived value contributes to the ongoing frustration job seekers experience about the time-consuming nature of these processes (Scott, 2011, p. 42). A review of The Online Application Process Issues (OAPI) survey follows to discuss professional job advertisement.

A consortium of employers funded the OAPI, which in 2009 comprised Procter & Gamble, Qualcomm, and Schulerberger. The OAPI study gathered qualitative data through one-hour focus groups conducted at 19 university sites, where participating students completed an encrypted online survey to provide quantitative data. Of the 274 students who contributed to the study, 175 were undergraduates, 49 were pursuing technical advanced degrees (e.g., Masters, Ph.Ds.), and the remaining 50 were M.B.A. candidates (Scott, 2011, p. 43).

The OAPI findings include responses expressing that online job search engines should have easy-to-find relevant information for job hunting, that candidates should be able to clearly identify positions, and that websites do not help students differentiate among potential employers.

As part of this study, employers were very interested in students' views on adding interactive elements to their website design. Participants' reactions to interactive tools were surprisingly negative. Students were not supportive of employers adding video testimonials of new hires. Other responses indicated that, with regard to social media interactions, participants strongly disagreed with wanting or expecting employers to interact with them on Facebook, because they associated this social media outlet with their personal lives. Students prefer LinkedIn, as they view it as a professional communication channel and recruitment tool. An interactive element that has largely disappeared from employers' websites since 2009 is the use of avatars, the graphical representation of the job seeker. Students think the website is overly complicated if an applicant needs to provide an avatar (Scott, 2011, pp. 43-46).

Upon examination of students' responses about online applications, it is noticeable they do not value parts of the online job application process. This finding maps directly to the ongoing frustration that persists among student job seekers as to the time-consuming nature of such

processes, and their valuing those systems that do provide an impressive and productive candidate experience (Scott, 2011, p. 47).

Latino Job Search Behaviors

Latinos use a variety of methods for their professional job searches, one of them being the sharing of their story. What does sharing their story mean? Career expert and corporate navigator Amanda Mitchell advises Latinos to share their stories, but also to keep them positive, especially following firings or layoffs of Hispanics. “You want to be strategic in how you communicate what happened – even with your family,” notes Mitchell. “If you come home and curse the company and talk about how horrible your supervisor was and how unfair it was, your friends and family will see you as a victim – which is not a power position” (Mitchell, 2011, p. 35). Mitchell says that Hispanics’ best connections for future work may come through friends and family, in which case these connections should regard them as professionals, especially if Hispanics plan to ask their relatives and friends for future job references. In other words, it is appropriate for a job seeker to maintain a positive and professional attitude among friends as well as in professional environments.

Furthermore, Mitchell advises that throughout the application process, Hispanics need to be honest about any negative experiences they may have on record while emphasizing the learning curve a particular experience may have provided and take responsibility for their actions. Finally, she advises to be cautious when using social media, email or chats for it is easy to join a discussion and lose sight of the professional behavior needed to support a positive reputation as a professional worker (Mitchell, 2011, p. 37).

Web-assisted career counseling is another search tool Latinos can use. For the past 20 years, counselors have used computer-based career information systems to assist clients with career planning and job hunting. This information is now available on the Internet and is easily accessible without the aid of a counselor face-to-face. Such developments are likely to have a major impact on employment counseling practices diminishing the role of a counselor and empowering Latinos to access these job search tools 24/7 (Kirk, 2000, p. 148).

Corporate websites are yet another tool available to Latinos. Corporate human resource managers prefer their corporate websites to general online job boards. In 2002, Feldman and Klaas conducted a study in which they examined the experiences of managers and professionals searching for jobs on the web. Twenty-nine percent of respondents reported that the web was the most helpful platform for finding a job, compared to 40% who believed that networking was the most useful (Feldman & Klaas as reported by Jansen, Jansen, & Spink, 2005, p. 51).

Fortunately, 47% of Hispanics have web access and Hispanics are widely using online job seeking more and more lately (Rainey, 2011, p. 15). As of July 2002, more than 52 million Americans have conducted online searches for information about jobs, with more than 4 million Americans doing so on a typical day, representing a 60% increase from 2000. While 44% of Whites have done online job seeking, close to 60% of Hispanics with Internet access have sought job information on the Internet. Recent demographics for web job searches suggest there is a similar mix of males and females (50% of males, 44% of females) and 61% are age 18-29. On a regular day, twice as many men are job hunting online, compared to women (Rainey, 2011, p. 15).

Interestingly enough, high socioeconomic status and online job seeking correlate for all demographic groups, including Hispanics. As such, those who live in households with incomes more than \$75,000 are more likely to have conducted job searches online than others with lesser household incomes. Similarly, those with college or graduate degrees are more likely to have explored the job classifieds online than those with high school diplomas (Rainey, 2011, p. 15).

According to Pratt (2009), Latinos should maximize the connections that social networking tools (e.g., LinkedIn, Facebook, Twitter) offer by actively updating their entries, joining groups that relate to their interests and work, and responding to updates their connections post. Successful professional M. Kesner, Chief Technology Officer at Fenwick & West LLP, a law firm based in Mountain View, California, says former colleagues have found him through Facebook, LinkedIn, and Twitter. Additionally, he is more likely to connect offline with the people in his network because of these sites (Pratt, 2009, p. 24).

University Career Centers' professionals are another valuable resource available to assist Latinos through the job search process. Many career centers dropped the term "job placement" from their names and missions years ago, transitioning from "Career Planning & Placement Center" to simply "Career Center," "Career Development," or "Career Services" offices. The apparent reason for this change is to reflect the fact that career centers take a more comprehensive approach that involves career counseling and opportunities for students to connect with prospective employers. The role of university career centers has shifted, resulting in having career center professionals increasingly helping alumnae who have been out of school for many years with employment assistance. Due to the past years' economic situation, many Hispanics have lost their jobs since 2007. Career center advisors do not have an easy task, as many Hispanic candidates are rusty job seekers who are not aware of the newest job search techniques and tools, not to mention the fact that they have not interviewed in a long time (Cho, 2009).

Results

This research provides a foundation that can be the basis for more comprehensive studies on the role of media for professional job searches among U.S. Hispanics. The principal findings of this study are that Hispanics underuse the web and other media for professional job searches with the possibility that the more educated make better use of media for job searches. Additionally, the study concludes that career counselors do not receive sufficient training in multicultural career advising, and counselors are not training Hispanics sufficiently in the use of media for professional job searches.

This qualitative study identifies the overarching variables that affect Hispanics' professional job searches, which include an apparent scarce utilization of media for employment seeking, insufficient career counseling for Latinos, and the lack of Latino mentors or role models in leadership positions. Moreover, the educational level of the participants in this study is a limitation, being that it is higher than the average Latino educational level, with 89% of Latinos holding Master's degrees, and 11% of participants holding Doctorates. It calls for further studies that provide data that can relate to the U.S. Hispanic population both in aggregate and for the distinct subgroups among Hispanics.

Limitations to the Study

While there were significant findings about Hispanics' use of media for professional job searches, the results cannot relay to all Hispanics because this data sample is not statistically significant, but rather a qualitative study that attempts to identify the variables that are involved in Hispanic professional job searches. Another limitation is the research did not address distinct Hispanic subgroups in detail. Moreover, the study does not distinguish trends by geographical areas.

Recommendations for Future Research

To address these limitations, the author recommends quantitative studies. Questions might include the following:

1. What variables impede or support the use of media by Hispanics for professional job searches?
2. What means can career counselors use to persuade Hispanics to use the media effectively for their professional job searches?
3. What are the differences among the various Hispanic subgroups with regard to the first two questions?
4. Can all U.S. Hispanics utilize the same training methods?

The author of this article proposes completing an in-depth analysis that utilizes large sample sizes to obtain statistically relevant data that is representative of U.S. Hispanics. To fully understand the differences among Hispanics, future studies should focus on the full array of Hispanic subgroups including all South American, Central American, and Caribbean U.S. Hispanics to obtain comprehensive results, since U.S. Hispanics might utilize different media for their professional job searches due to having different customs because of their country of origin.

Furthermore, other studies could examine multicultural career training for career counselors. Once career counselors understand the nuances of Hispanic subgroups including their culture and job search behaviors, they will serve and assist Hispanics more effectively.

Last, the author of this study recommends expanding the research to observe the role different media such as the web, television, radio, and newspapers can play for professional job searches among U.S. Hispanics.

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About the Author

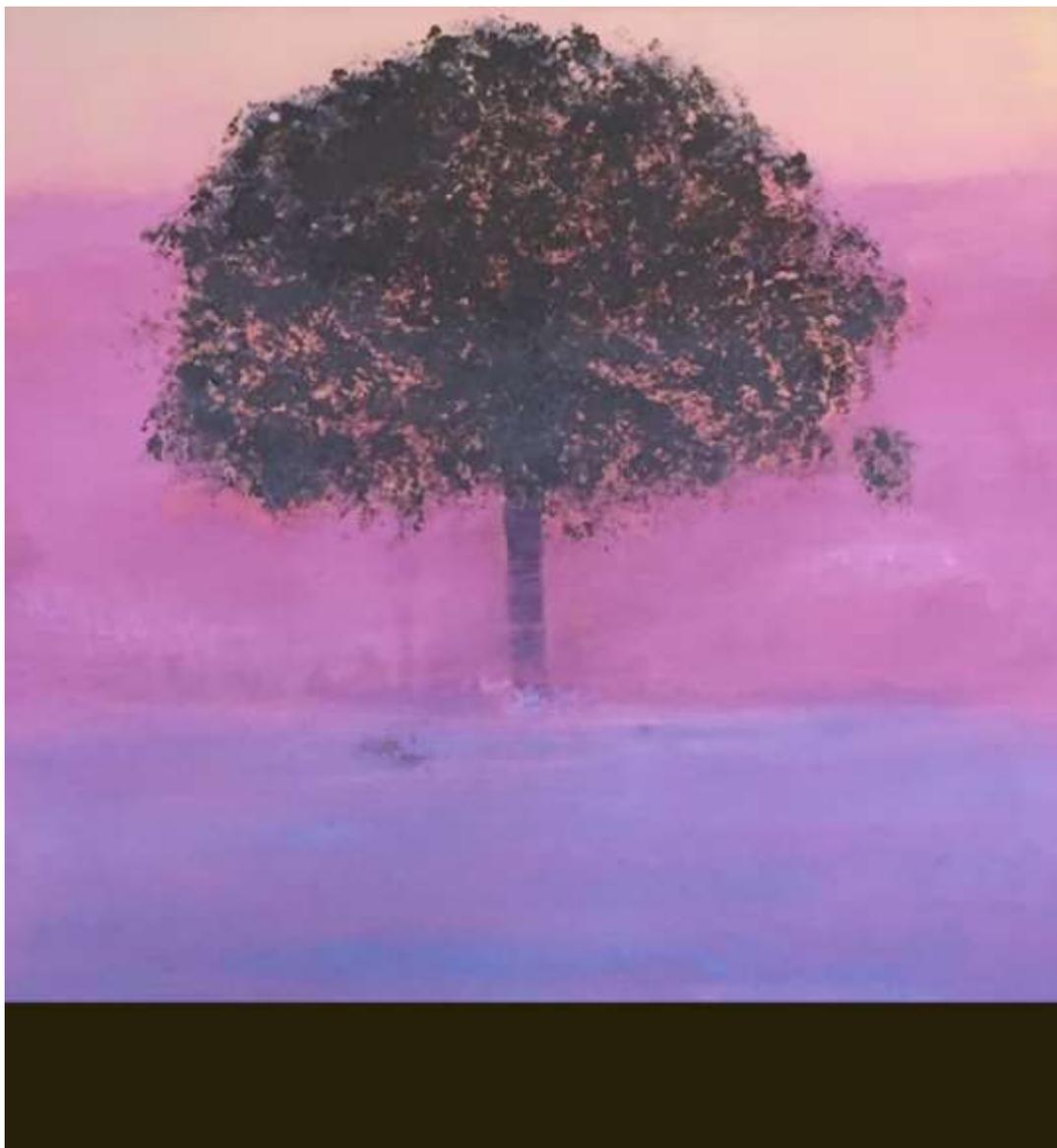
A native of Madrid, Spain, Cristina C. López (cclopezv@gmail.com) is a higher education administration professional with more than 17 years of experience in academia, non-profit, and corporate sectors. Currently, she is Associate Director of Career Services at St. Thomas University in Miami Gardens, Florida. She holds a Master of Arts in Communication Arts and a Master of Business Administration from St. Thomas University. Ms. López is passionate about traveling and languages, and is fluent in English, Spanish, and French.

Discussion Questions

1. What media do Latinos use in general?
2. What methods do the Latino market use for professional job searches?
3. Are present Latino media usage behaviors productive for career development or job searches?
4. What recommendations can the author of this article make to companies for recruiting Latino professionals??

To Cite this Article

Lopez, C. C. (2015, Summer). The impact of media on U.S. Hispanics' professional job searches. *Journal of Multidisciplinary Research*, 7(2), 77-89.



Metatron

2015

Acrylic on panel by Willie Báez

Metatron (Archangel) is the guardian of the tree of life. In his paintings, Willie Báez has an ongoing dialogue with fairytales and literature. Much of his work tends to focus on mystical and idyllic ideas filled with spirituality, and at times with religious themes. The colors and imagery refer to an otherworldly place between reality and dreams.

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Journal of Multidisciplinary Research, Vol. 7, No. 2, Summer 2015, 91-94.
ISSN 1947-2900 (print) • ISSN 1947-2919 (online)
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Danny Alfonso

**City Manager
City of Miami**



Daniel J. Alfonso is the City Manager at the City of Miami. He is implementing various initiatives aimed at improving the City's finances, employee morale, productivity, and customer service. Previously, he served as Director of Management and Budget for the City and held multiple administrative positions with Miami Dade County.

He holds degrees in Finance and Business Administration from Florida International University and an Associate degree in Accounting from Miami-Dade College.

Mr. Alfonso also served honorably in the United States Army from 1986 to 1991. He lives in Miami with his wife of 27 years, and his son and daughter.

Interview

by Nina Q. Rose

Q1. Life is about stories. Do you have a favorite story you use as an icebreaker?

I always heard the wisdom of not judging a book by its cover. I experienced that lesson firsthand in my leadership career. As a Sergeant serving in the U.S. Army in 1988 in Germany, I was assigned a new soldier who had just arrived from basic training. I thought it would be great to get a fresh soldier to train and mold. When I first met the soldier, he turned out to be a man in his early 30s. While young by my current standards, for a 20-year-old Sergeant, my first thought (reading the cover) was this soldier might be difficult to deal with. Quickly, after working with him, it became apparent this soldier was a professional, and he was one of the best soldiers I ever had the pleasure of serving with. Ever since, I have never made assumptions about people I meet. I always let time and experience form my opinion as to the person's character and commitment.

Q2. What are the top three characteristics that contributed to your success?

As I think of the three characteristics that contributed to my success, I have to say honesty, consistency, and understanding.

I am honest in that I don't sugarcoat the truth. When I am asked for a professional opinion or recommendation, I answer with what I believe is the best course of action; people know that when I am asked, I will answer consistently—which is the second trait I mentioned.

My position on issues does not change based on where I am seated. I was once told, "Where one stands on an issue depends on where one is standing." I don't agree with that statement. I believe that what is right is right, regardless of where one stands; however, I understand!—the third reason for my success.

I have the ability to place myself in the other person's shoes and see the issue from his or her point of view. This allows me to empathize and work to find solutions that help both sides.

Q3. What life-changing events or decisions have guided your career?

Joining the U.S. Army and being deployed to Desert Shield and Desert Storm in 1990-1991 as a Cavalry Scout in the 24th Infantry Division, separating from the military, and leaving County Service to work at the City of Miami are key events that have shaped my life and guided my career.

When I was 22 years old, I had the honor of serving as part of the multinational force that deployed to Saudi Arabia and later into Iraq to defend the interests of the United States. As a young man, facing the real possibility of giving my life for a greater good was an incredible experience. Later in my military career, the decision to separate was also difficult. I had grown to love the environment, the purpose, the feeling of making a difference, and the security of knowing there was a support system for my family if I were no longer here.

Getting through the process of re-joining civilian life and succeeding at providing for my family and getting my formal education gave me a sense of accomplishment that prepared me for

making an even more difficult move when I left the County after 17 years of service. Assessing risk, not fearing the unknown, and committing to a decision are lessons I have learned through these experiences that have made a significant difference in my career.

Q4. Tell us of any expressions your parents often repeated with you.

Be good to others!

Q5. What is the biggest misconception about how to achieve success?

To me, the biggest mistake some make when striving for success is to believe the misguided idiom, "It's not what you know, it's who you know!" I am a firm believer in the opposite, "Work hard, educate yourself, persevere, and you will succeed."

Q6. What books have you read lately?

Lincoln on Leadership: Executive Strategies for Tough Times, by Donald T. Phillips.
Good to Great: Why Some Companies Make the Leap...And Others Don't,
by James C. Collins.

Q7. Imagine your phone rings, and it's you from ten years ago. If you only had a minute to talk, what would you say?

Stay the course! You will be fine, but dedicate more time to the family.

Q8. What elevator speech would you give children about success in life?

Take life by the horns, don't waste opportunities, and do what you love! "If you do what you love, you will never work a day in your life." The trick is getting to the point where you know what it is that you want. Don't be afraid to try different things before you focus on the path you choose.

Q9. What is the best advice you've ever received, and who gave it to you?

"When you arrive at your first duty assignment, assess the soldiers in the unit. Act and associate with those that are successful, those that demonstrate proficiency, those that are professional soldiers in all the good sense of the word; stay away from and don't hang around the ones that do not show the above characteristics." My drill sergeant gave me this advice at the end of my Basic Training Course in 1986.

Q10. What would you like to see as your life's legacy?

A productive son and daughter who grow up to be good citizens.

To Cite this Interview

Rose, N. Q. (2015, Summer). Danny Alfonso, city manager, city of Miami. *Journal of Multidisciplinary Research*, 7(2), 91-94.

Journal of Multidisciplinary Research, Vol. 7, No. 2, Summer 2015, 95-97.
ISSN 1947-2900 (print) • ISSN 1947-2919 (online)
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Book Review

Book Details

Huckabee, M. (2014). *God, guns, grits, and gravy*. New York: St. Martin's Press, 258 pages, \$26.99, Hardcover, ISBN 978-1-250-066099-0.

Reviewer

Gary Feinberg, Ph.D.

Synopsis and Evaluation

Mike Huckabee, possible 2016 Republican Presidential nominee, longtime Governor of Arkansas, bestselling author of 11 books, and former host of the award-winning Fox News weekend TV program *Huckabee*, has published his latest book, *God, Guns, Grits, and Gravy*. Those familiar with his earlier works will appreciate that this one is part homage to rural America's respectable traditions and conservative values and part harangue against urban America's fatuous elitism and liberal folly, delivered in an eye-opening, well-informed dissertation extolling the political, social, and economic virtues of the former and the corresponding liabilities of the latter.

The central thesis of the book is a time-honored one delivered from the conservative pulpit: America is on a path of self-destruction due to excessive and intrusive government regulation, business-crippling taxation, a dismantled free-market system and its replacement with rampant socialism, government intrusion into our private lives, and the concomitant eclipse of the "holy of holies" (i.e., the U.S. Constitution). In building his arguments to support this thesis, Huckabee takes aim at legislation limiting access to guns, gay marriage, the rising culture of obscenity and reality TV, the hypocrisy of environmental protection advocates, government eavesdropping on our private conversations, the growing exodus from public schools to home schooling, job migration to economically friendlier ports, and the eclipse of America as a world leader and economic powerhouse. And when he fires at his target, he scores a bull's-eye every time, or almost every time.

Readers are likely to be informed by Huckabee's discussion of gun control. Among the facts he cites are the following: (1) mass murders are more common in places where gun control policy is highly restrictive; (2) while gun ownership increased by 4% between 2004 and 2009, robberies at gun point and assaults using a gun are decreasing; and (3) murders involving the use of a gun are 10% higher in places where gun control is very strict than in areas where it is less restrictive. Similarly helpful is his discussion regarding the real properties of assault weapons and automatic handguns, which help to disabuse readers of the notion that they are inappropriate for average citizens to possess. Also convincing is the context he gives to the Second Amendment and the right to bear arms when he addresses the loss of that right among Jews during the early days of the Nazi rise to power and its devastating consequences.

Also especially cogent and insightful are the facts he brings to bear regarding increasing government taxation and regulation of large corporations in the United States, which like a parasite,

destroys the health of a free-market economy, thereby forcing jobs and talent to migrate outside the country to places like Mexico, China, and southeast Asia. Drawing comparisons with what is happening in China's economic sector, with its favorable free-market policies and its consequent emergence as a major player in the world marketplace—in many ways outstripping, and diametrically opposite to, what is happening in the United States—Huckabee offers powerful and disconcerting observations.

Huckabee takes pleasure in identifying with 'rural America,' its folkways, mores, and norms—Bless his heart!—where God, grits, and gravy-on-biscuits rule. He calls for greater respect for traditional authority figures, the preservation of nuclear family ties, a cleaner vocabulary on public media, greater moral decency in our daily lives, inclusion of those who live by the Bible, the right of people to make their own decisions on what to eat and where to go to school, and the right to be wrong and to fail without a government bailout. Few would debate these points, much less advocate for higher divorce rates, greater presence of obscenity in the media, or less tolerance for people who believe in God. Moreover, Huckabee advocates that these can be achieved without an overreach of government into our personal lives. As he argues, government should not be the engine driving these developments, but the caboose. They must originate in the hearts and minds of the people; they must be based on changes in public attitudes, including their beliefs, sentiments, and orientations to action. In a democracy, the government should reflect these attitudes, not determine them.

Huckabee offers some insightful observations about diversity, environmental concerns, and same-sex marriage. Specifically, he holds in disrepute people who advocate for diversity but who want to crucify anyone who holds different views than their own when it comes to gun control, welfare, same-sex marriage, increasing taxes on the rich, or protecting the environment, among other issues. How quick they are, he points out, to label those who reject same-sex marriage as homophobic, to try to muzzle those who advocate conservative views, to bring economic sanctions such as boycotts against businesses whose owners hold social values or political views that differ from their own, and to mock or even vilify those in whose lives God, traditional family values, and church play a significant role. Such critics are not only tearing apart the so-called patchwork quilt of contemporary minority-majority relations but also systematically tearing up constitutionally protected rights of free speech and freedom of religion, as well as free enterprise. Similarly, he criticizes the hypocrisy of liberals who advocate for governmental controls on the environment but who themselves are often the worst polluters of the air and water, flying around the world filling the skies with CO₂ from huge private jets while transporting only one or two passengers. These same environmental spokespersons, who have never planted an orchard or encountered potato blight, are telling farmers, whose lives depend on the land and who have farming in their blood for generations, that they cannot cut certain trees to prevent the spread of forest fires should lightning strike and cause a conflagration.

Interestingly, I suspect many liberal urbanites growing up in the late 1940s and throughout the 1950s will find themselves walking down memory lane as they read some of what Huckabee advocates and his underlying rationales. Indeed, Huckabee's call for a return to traditional values will resonate well with the kind of community into which many of our Baby Boomers were socialized. Even in what Huckabee cuttingly calls such "Bubble-ville" cities such as New York and Los Angeles, neighbors helped neighbors whether it was sharing letters from their children on the battlefields or sharing coupons for scarce goods like gasoline or meat. Divorce was rare and not something one readily shared with strangers; children were released from public schools to attend religious training in their respective churches or synagogues; children played cowboys and Indians with toy guns; parents disciplined children who "answered back" or were disruptive in class; mothers and fathers knew where their children were and with whom they played; and many of the most popular radio and television programs like *Leave it to Beaver*, *Father Knows Best*, and even *The Honeymooners* offered up stories with a moral while others such as *I Love Lucy*, *The Ed Sullivan Show*, and the *Show of Shows* provided wholesome entertainment. Even Milton Berle in drag offered up goodhearted laughter, not controversial political commentary.

Lest this be conceived of as an idyllic time, realize it was the same era that allowed for discrimination against Blacks who never appeared on TV, except as servants or witless supporting role players; that forced families to stay together, hating each other, rather than endure the stigma of divorce; that accepted the idea that women who worked should be paid less for the same job than men; and that wanted homosexuals imprisoned as felons or even to suffer the same fate as England's King Edward II. Again, this is not to deny the central position and supporting arguments Huckabee takes in this book. Indeed, while we may agree with his politics and champion his message, it does call to mind the truth in the Spanish saying, "*No hay rosas sin espinas*"! (There are no roses without thorns!)

The style of the book is informal, folksy, sometimes humorous, and always engaging. While some of the arguments made are not new, the book does offer numerous interesting examples and data from national as well as international sources that justify the conservative position to which Huckabee pledges allegiance. They also give this book an excitement and cogency that make it an informative and worthwhile read.

In the Author's Own Words

"Regulation + Taxation + Litigation = Migration. . . (T)he migration of businesses from highly taxed and regulated states and nations to those that offer lower taxes and more freedom is as obvious and predictable as the migration of mallard ducks from Canada to the rice fields of east Arkansas" (p. 180).

Reviewer's Details

Gary Feinberg, Ph.D. (gfeinber@stu.edu), is professor of sociology at Biscayne College, St. Thomas University in Miami Gardens, Florida. His area of expertise is the sociology of law with a specialization in comparative legal systems. He has published more than 40 professional journal articles and book chapters. Research interests include white-collar crime, criminology, and juvenile justice.

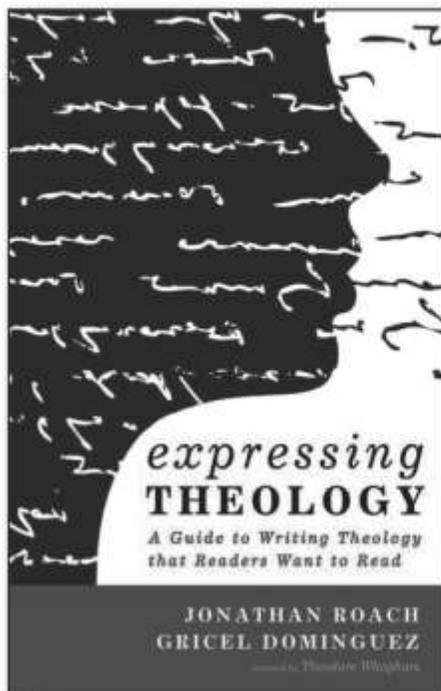
To Cite this Review

Feinberg, G. (2015, Summer). Review of *God, guns, grits, and gravy*, by M. Huckabee. *Journal of Multidisciplinary Research*, 7(2), 95-97.



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Jonathan C. Roach is the University Library Administrator at St. Thomas University in Miami Gardens, Florida. He earned a PhD in Practical Theology, a Master of Divinity, and a Master of Library and Information Science. He has been published in the journals *Worship*, *Journal of Pastoral Care and Counseling*, *Teaching Theology and Religion*, and in *Hymns for a Pilgrim People*. He taught graduate classes in theological writing and research at Ecumenical Theological Seminary and St. Thomas University. He lives with his wife, Rev. Jilhey Esther Roach, in Miami.

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Journal of Multidisciplinary Research, Vol. 7, No. 2, Summer 2015, 99-101.
ISSN 1947-2900 (print) • ISSN 1947-2919 (online)
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Book Review

Book Details

Liebowitz, J. (Ed.). (2015). *A guide to publishing for academics: Inside the publish or perish phenomenon*. Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press, 223 pages, \$86, hardcover, ISBN-13: 978-1482256260.

Reviewer

Nina Q. Rose, J.D., M.S.L.I.S.

Synopsis and Evaluation

Dr. Jay Liebowitz, 24-year editor of the *Expert Systems with Applications* journal (Elsevier) and editor of *A Guide to Publishing for Academics: Inside the Publish or Perish Phenomenon*, taps the expertise of 16 journal editors to compile this insider perspective on journal publishing. While the chapter authors speak from their experience publishing business and information technology journals, the book's content has wider appeal and is relevant to many "publish or perish" players.

The book's primary audience is the author, with preliminary chapters covering "lessons" ranging from where to publish to how to handle the review process (Chapter 1), insightful suggestions on crafting attention-grabbing article titles (Chapter 2), and characteristics of the poor literature review (Chapter 3). Chapters 4, 6, and 7 variously describe the steps in the manuscript submission and review processes and highlight the avoidable mistakes unsuccessful authors make. Chapter 13 is a review of the literature on the top barriers to producing publishable work and recommends services to help researchers overcome writing difficulties. The book closes with a good discussion of considerations in selecting a research topic and the attitudes that drive authors to publish in leading journals (Chapter 15). Both authors and administrators at faculty centers for teaching and learning will find several useful resources and suggestions in each of these chapters.

While the book is more publishing guide than it is publish-or-perish guide, a few chapters do touch on assessment of faculty publications by tenure and promotion committees. Chapters 1, 14, and 15 address the role of journal-ranking systems in committee assessment of a candidate's portfolio, among other considerations in selecting venues with the right fit for publishing one's work. Chapter 5 speaks to the difficulties of developing a researcher identity when tenure and promotion systems dictate where a researcher must publish. And Chapter 8 acknowledges the low regard typically given to interdisciplinary research among tenure and promotion committees, while highlighting the National Science Foundation's imprimatur on interdisciplinary research

and the shift toward data-driven research as generating more recognition and support for interdisciplinary teams.

Beyond authors, some of the chapters will be of interest to journal editors. Chapters 9 and 15 discuss approaches to editing manuscripts, with Chapter 9 also delving into factors that impact the composition of editorial boards. Chapter 10 focuses on the coaching role of an editor and the opportunity it presents for developing inexperienced authors, lackluster reviewers, and even experienced editorial board members. Chapter 11 offers insights of particular interest to emerging or foundering journals, including lessons learned as a journal evolves with the developing fields it may represent (here, homeland security and emergency management) and meeting the challenges of maintaining journal focus and quality, reconciling competing readership interests, and sustaining reader attention.

The book also has much to offer reviewers. Chapter 5 has a brief section on building good reviewer karma, reminding readers that the quality of one's reviews precedes them. Chapter 6 contains a bonus section on how to be a good reviewer, while Chapter 12 offers a more extended treatment, addressing when not to review a manuscript, how to write a referee report, and what pitfalls the too-kind or too-critical referee should avoid.

Highly recommended for academics across disciplines, this book delivers useful advice on developing a publishing strategy, getting published, reviewing papers, and running a journal. Scholarly communication librarians also will gain insights for their work as consultants to authors and editors. To expand the book's scope, future chapters might survey the open access publishing landscape and examine the pros and cons of open access for researchers, practitioners, and journals. Other chapters might guide authors toward more widely disseminating their research and promoting a personal brand, including via social media and open repositories. A review of the literature on article-level metrics also would be a welcomed addition.

In the Authors' Own Words

"Publishing should be regarded as a 'discourse community,' composed of authors, reviewers, and editors whose goals and objectives, although varying, are consistent and mutually understood" (p. 54).

"So [this interdisciplinary group of researchers is] successfully publishing in multiple disciplines, which shows that they have effectively presented their results to the reviewers in the separate disciplines. This means that they are not only communicating well between members of the separate disciplines but more important, they have also matched one or more of the paradigmatic components of the different disciplines" (p. 101).

"I eventually came to believe that every editor should plan to coach his or her journal's authors as well as members of the editorial team" (pp. 127-128).

"A referee is both critic and coach. As authors, . . . We are especially hopeful that the reviewer, unless accepting the paper unconditionally, will help us improve the paper, possibly turning a minor contribution into a major one" (p. 160).

Reviewer's Details

Nina Rose (nrose@stu.edu) is the Assistant Library Administrator and Outreach Librarian at St. Thomas University Library. She is currently exploring tenure and promotion systems' evolving recognition of new forms of scholarship and levels of contribution, beyond authorship of published articles. Ms. Rose has an M.S.L.I.S. from Florida State University School of Information and a J.D. from the University of Florida Levin College of Law. She previously practiced labor and employment law and has written and copyedited various legal texts. Ms. Rose served as editor of the *University of Florida Journal of Law & Public Policy*, a journal jointly published with the School of Business. Out of this formative experience, she developed *L.J. eds.*, a blog about law journal publishing written for student editors. Ms. Rose is the book review editor for the *Journal of Multidisciplinary Research*.

To Cite this Review

Rose, N. Q. (2015, Summer). Review of *A guide to publishing for academics: Inside the publish or perish phenomenon*, by J. Liebowitz. *Journal of Multidisciplinary Research*, 7(2), 99-101.



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Oil and acrylic on canvas by Heloisa Botelho

A new departure in the work of Heloisa Botelho is the combination of abstract and representational elements. For this painting, Botelho found inspiration in the physical beauty of her surroundings, the colorful architecture and tropical environment of the South Beach area of Miami Beach, Florida.

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This journal is made possible by the generosity of Dr. Craig Reese and the financial support of the St. Thomas University School of Business.

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